PART II. *Price 2 Rs.*

THE

FLORA SYLVATICA:

Being Figures and Descriptions of the Timber Trees

OF THE

MADRAS PRESIDENC

BY

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OFFICIATING CONSERVATOR OF FORESTS.

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MELIA AZADIRACHTA. (Nat. ord. Meliaceæ.)

For Gen Char see under "M composita."

MELIA AZADIRACHTA. (L) Leaves simply pinnate, leaflets ovate lanceolate, unequal sided, acuminated serrated, panicles axillary, flowers small white, fruit purple size of an olive, 1-celled 1-seeded. *Roxb. Fl. Ind* ii. 394 ,—Aria bepou *Rheede Mal.* 4 *to* 52. Azadirachta Indica, *Ad. de Juss.*,—*W. A. Prod. p.* 118.

This has been separated from the genus Melia under the name of Azadirach'a by Ad. de Juss. on account of its 1 *celled,* 1 *seeded nut Hook and Bentham, however, unite the* 2 *genera.*

Called in Hindoostani the Nim, by which name the tree is well known throughout India. It is an ornamental tree, and is very much planted in avenues and topes; it is common throughout India, Birmah, and Ceylon, generally in a planted state, though occasionally in the forests; it grows well in almost any soil in the plains, and occasionally attains a very large girth. It is calle d Veypam in Tamil, Yàpà or Yepa in Telugoo, Kohomba in Ceylon, and is the Margosa tree of Europeans. The wood is very like mahogany, beautifully mottled, hard and heavy; it is much used for cart wheels and ordinary building purposes, and old trees yield a first-rate furniture wood which is well adapted for ship-building; it is much used in Bengal in the manufacture of idols, as it is so bitter that no insect will attack it. The bark is very bitter and is used as a substitute for Quinine, the leaves beaten into a pulp are externally applied with great efficacy in case of pustular eruptions in rheumatism, and for bruises, and sprains, and the leaves are said to be useful in keeping away the boring worm from books: the dried leaves are often added to common poultices by the natives, and are said to act in preventing glandular tumours from coming to maturity. The fruit yields an acrid bitter oil, which is exported from the Madras Presidency, it is said to have valuable antispasmodic properties, and is anthelmintic and stimulant It is used by the natives as a remedy in leprosy and as a liniment for rheumatic affections; it is obtained by boiling or expression, is of a deep yellow color, and is used for burning in lamps. The bark yields a gum which is said to be a stimulant. A toddy, called Veypum Khalloo, is obtained from young trees

Govindoo, del:

Melia Azedarach (Linn:)

Dumphy, Lith:

MELIA AZEDARACH. (Nat. ord. Meliaceæ.)

For Gen. Char. see under "M. composita."

MELIA AZEDARACH. (L.) Leaves deciduous 1-2 feet long, bipinnate glabrous, leaflets about 5 obliquely lanceolate, or ovate-lanceolate to elliptical acute or acuminate, serrate inciso-serrate or entire, petals nearly glabrous, fruit with a 5-celled putamen or by abortion with fewer cells. *W. A. Prod. p.* 117 ;—*D. C.* i. 621 ;—*Roxb. Fl. Ind.* ii. 395.

A handsome tree, attaining a height of about 40 *feet and a quick grower; it produces its sweet-scented lilac-like flowers in the hot season. It is found sparingly as a planted tree throughout the Madras Presidency, Bengal, Mysore, Bombay, &c., but rarely if ever met with in the jungles ; it is a very ornamental tree and deserving of more attention. It is wild in China and in Africa, and has been naturalized in the South of Europe ; the wood of older trees is handsomely marked, rather durable and in use for furniture ; it is often called Bastard Cedar, and is apt to warp and split ; the tree is called Mallay Vembu in Tamil, Taraku vepà in Telugoo, and in English is known as the Persian Lilac ;—the seeds are often strung as beads, and a valuable oil is produced from them ; the root is nauseous and bitter, and in use as an anthelmintic.*

Govindoo, del.

Melia azadiracta (Linn:)

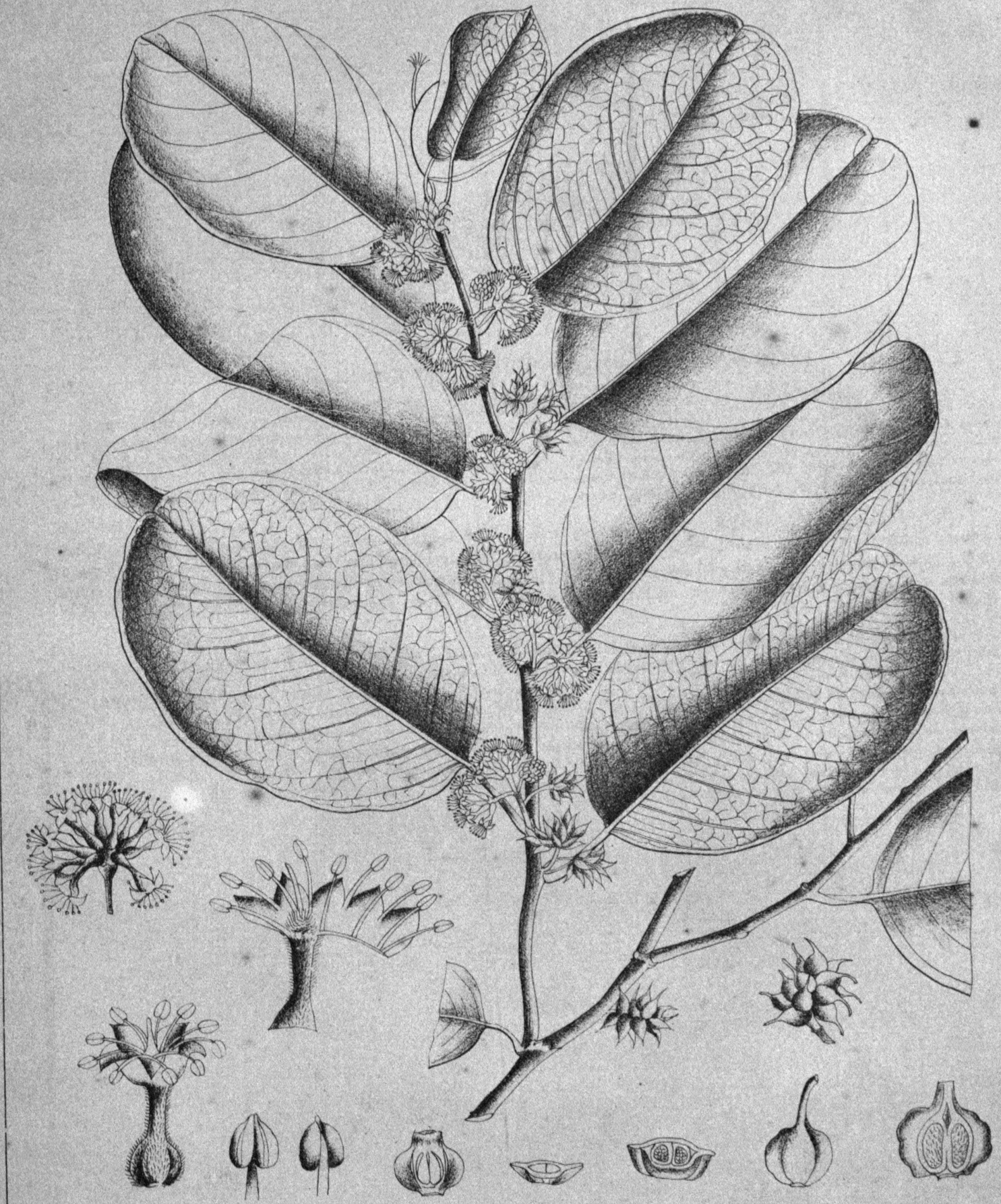
Dumphy, Lith:

ANOGEISSUS LATIFOLIUS. (Nat. ord. Combretaceæ.)

ANOGEISSUS. (Wall.) *Gen. Pl. p.* 687.—GEN. CHAR. Flowers densely aggregated on a common receptacle, calyx tube compressed 2 winged at the base, attenuated and much produced beyond the ovary and resembling a pedicel to the limb, limb campanulate or urceolate 5 fid deciduous, lobes valvate, petals 0. stamens 10 in 2 series, filaments filiform subulate exserted, anthers small cordate ; ovary 1-celled, style filiform, thickened at the base villous, stigma simple, ovules 2 pendulous from the apex of the cell. Fruit small, broadly trapezoid, 2-winged terminating in a long beak (the persistent calyx tube) 1-seeded. Seed ovoid, cotyledons convolute, trees or shrubs glabrous or sericeous, leaves alternate petiolate entire without glands or obscurely glandular at the base, flowers small yellowish, capituli axillary.

ANOGEISSUS LATIFOLIUS. (Roxb.) A lofty tree, 30 to 40 feet to the first branch, and up to 8 or 9 feet in circumference, bark smooth of a whitish color, branches numerous, spreading, forming a large high head, leaves alternate without glands elliptical or obovate obtuse or emarginate glabrous from 1 to 4 inches long and from 1 to 2 broad, peduncles axillary bearing several ramifications each supporting a little globular head of small yellow flowers. *Wall. L. n.* 4015 ;—Conocarpus latifolius, *Roxb. Fl. Ind.* ii. 442.

This is a very valuable timber tree, common throughout the Madras Presidency, Mysore, Bombay, Bengal and Ceylon, and attains a large size on many of our mountains ; it is common in the plains, and ascends the mountains to an elevation of about 3,000 *feet ; it is known by the names of Chiriman and Sheriman and Yella Maddi in Teligoo, Vellay nàgà and Veckàlie in Tamil, Dhobu in Oorea, Dhowrà and Dhàori in Hindustani and Mahratta, and Dàwu in Ceylon. Its wood is light colored with a purple heart ; it is close-grained and very durable when properly seasoned ; it is much used in house building and in ship building, and is one of the best woods for poles and axle-trees of carts, and is much used by the natives for agricultural implements. If left in the forests exposed to weather the wood rapidly deteriorates and is soon attacked by insects and white ants,—the wood from small trees wants the dark colored heart and is anything but durable. Except a few specimens in Botanical Gardens, there have been no attempts at planting this tree. The leaves are used by tanners. A gum exudes from the bark which is collected (as Dhàori ka gond) in Central India, and sold in the bazaars.*



Govindoo, del. Dumphy, Lith:

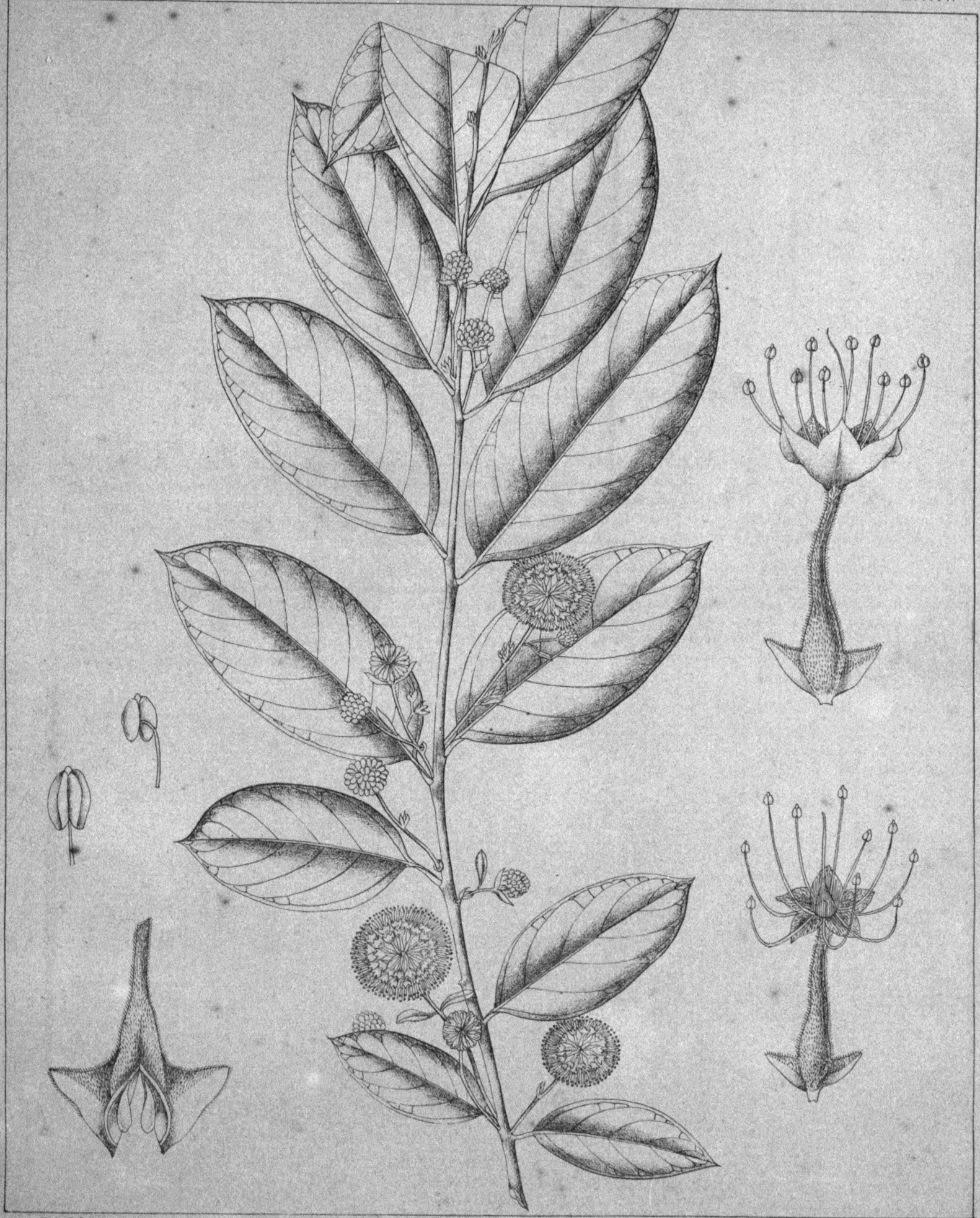
Anogeissus latifolius (Roxb.)

ANOGEISSUS ACUMINATUS. (Nat. ord. Combretaceæ.)

For Gen. Char. see under "A. latifolius."

ANOGEISSUS ACUMINATUS. (Roxb.) A lofty tree, but trunk seldom straight, up to 8 feet in girth, bark ash-colored, branches very numerous, spreading with their extremities pendulous (like the Weeping Willow) the whole forming a most beautiful large regular top, leaves short petioled alternate without glands oval or oblong-lanceolate pointed entire, when young downy when old smooth, about 2 to 3½ inches long and 1 to 1½ inch broad, peduncles axillary single simple with one head of flowers or occasionally with a second branch. *Wall L. n.* 4014;—Conocarpus acuminatus, *Roxb. Fl. Ind.* ii. 443.

A valuable and very ornamental tree, abundant in the Northern Circars, particularly in the Gumsur country (in the plains); but I have never observed it wild elsewhere in our Presidency. It is known by the Telugoo name of Parlchman. Dr. Brandis has found it in Birmah, where it is called Yoong. Its timber much resembles the preceding species, and has a purple heartwood; it is much used for building purposes, but will not stand exposure to water. The tree grows very well at Madras (there is a splendid specimen in the compound of the house known as the Collector's at Sydapett), and I have lately given some attention to raising it from seed, but all the plants at present are very young. It is certainly one of the most ornamental trees in our Presidency, and I hope ere long it will be largely planted; it is growing in the Calcutta Botanical Gardens.



Govindoo del.

Anogeissus acuminatus (Roxb.)

Dunphy, Lith.

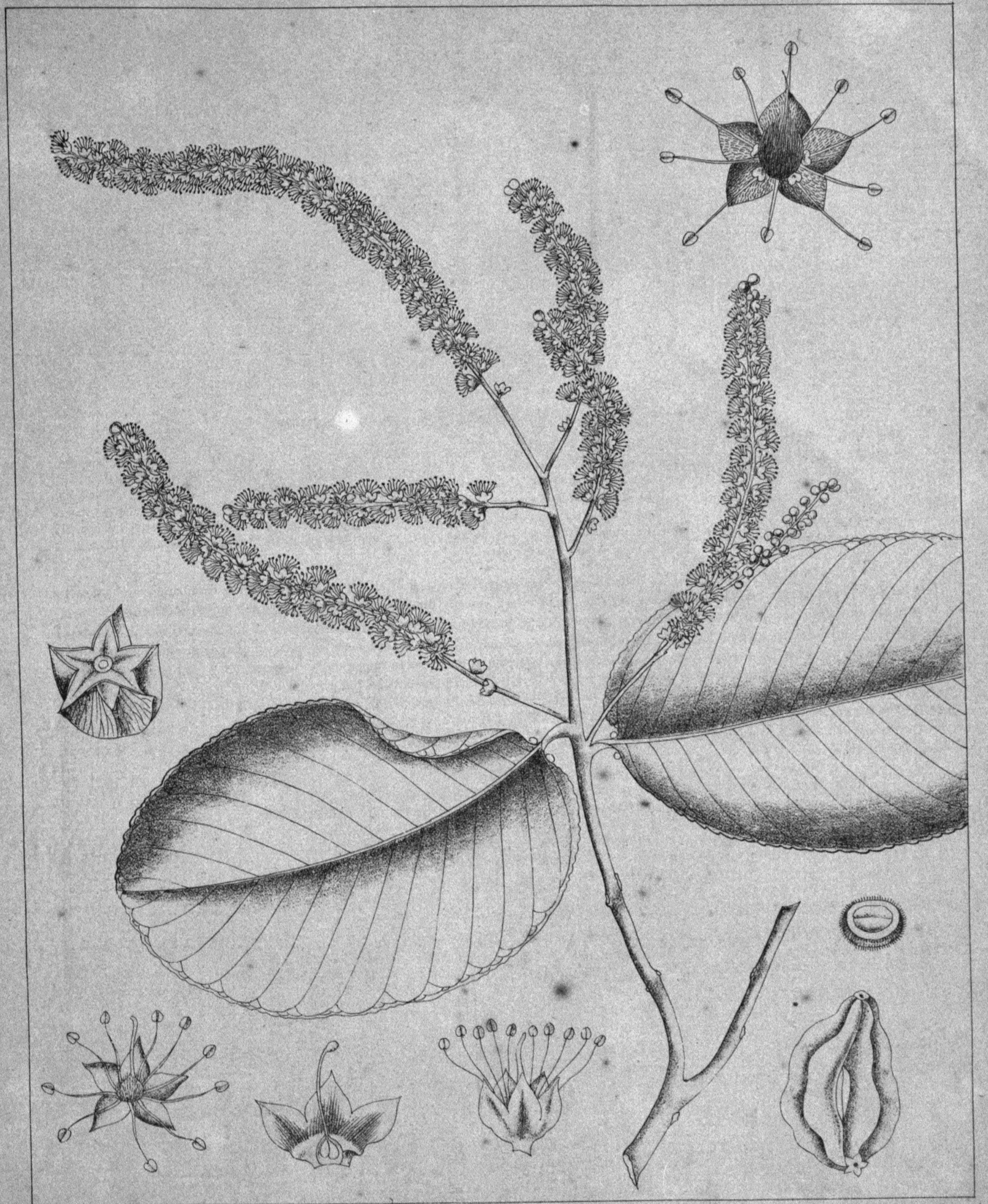
TERMINALIA TOMENTOSA. (Nat. ord. Combretaceæ.)

TERMINALIA. (L.) *Gen. Pl. p.* 685.—GEN. CHAR. Flowers hermathrodite or polygamo-dicœcious, calyx tube ovoid or cylindrical, constricted above the ovary, limb deciduous urceolate or campanulate 5 dentate or 5 fid, lobes valvate, petals O. stamens 10 in 2 series alternately larger filaments subulate or filiform exserted, anthers small didymous. Ovary 1-celled style subulate, often thickened and villous at the base, stigma simple ovules 2, rarely 3, pendulous from the apex of the cell, fruit ovoid, angled, compressed or 2-5 winged 1-seeded, sarcocarp generally thin or O. rarely fleshy, putamen coriaceous or bony seed almond-like, testa membranaceous, cotyledons convolute. Trees or erect shrubs, leaves alternate or rarely opposite or sub-opposite, often crowded towards the apex of the branches, with glands on both sides at the base or on the midrib, or glandless, flowers spiked sessile small, green or white, rarely colored, bisexual in the lower part of the spike, male in the upper.

TERMINALIA TOMENTOSA. (Roxb.) A very large timber tree, often 70 or 80 feet to the first bough, and up to 12 feet in girth; bark deeply cracked (or in one variety without any cracks), branches spreading, leaves sub-opposite short petioled oval, with a cordate (often unequal) base, to oblong or narrow-oblong obtuse or emarginate or slightly acute at the apex, entire or crenulated glabrous on both sides or more or less downy especially when young, up to 6 inches long by 4 broad, glands several on the midrib below generally near the base sessile or rarely stalked, panicles terminal or from the upper axils composed of a few simple long cylindric spikes, flowers sessile crowded of a dull yellow color generally hermathrodite below and male above, sometimes all hermathrodite, calyx glabrous or hoary, sometimes with 5 or 6 glands in the hair round the base of the syle, fruit enlarged into 5-7 equal longitudinal wings glabrous or rarely hoary. *W. A. Prod. p.* 314;—*Roxb. Fl. Ind.* ii. *pp.* 438, 439 and 440;—Terminalia crenulata, glabra, tomentosa, and coriacea, *W. A.*; Terminalia alata, *Ainslie*; Pentaptera glabra and tomentosa, *Roxb.*; Pentaptera coriacea, *Roxb.*; Pentaptera crenulata, *Roxb.*

This is one of our most useful timber trees; it is common throughout the Madras Presidency up to an elevation of 3,000 *or* 3,500 *feet, and grows to a very large size and very straight on the Anamallays, and very fine on the Nullaymallays (Kurnool), where the timber is highly prized, and more in use than any other; it is also common in Mysore, Bengal, Bombay, and Ceylon. It is called Sâj in Hindustani, Sâhajo in Oorea, Karrâ Murdâ in Tamil, Maddee and Nallâ Maddee in Telugoo, Matti in Canarese, and Koombook in Ceylon. The* Terminalia glabra of Roxb. *only differs in being more glabrous and having the bark nearly smooth, but the pubescence varies much, and I cannot look upon the two trees as distinct species. It is distinguished by the Telingees as Tella Maddee. The Banipu of the South Canara forests (probably* Pentaptera crenulata, Roxb.*) is also, I believe, only a variety of the same species, or at least closely allied; it differs in having very long stalked glands,* ½ *an inch long, on the midrib below, often up as far as the centre of the leaf; the tree does not, however, differ otherwise.*

Wood, dark-colored very hard, heavy, and strong, much used in house building, and for boats and canoes, solid wheels of carts, furniture, and many other purposes. The ashes from its burnt bark produce a kind of chunam which is eaten by the natives with betel leaf; the bark is astringent, and used for dying black and for tanning. This tree has been introduced into several of our plantations.



Govindoo, del.

Terminalia tomentosa (Roxb.)

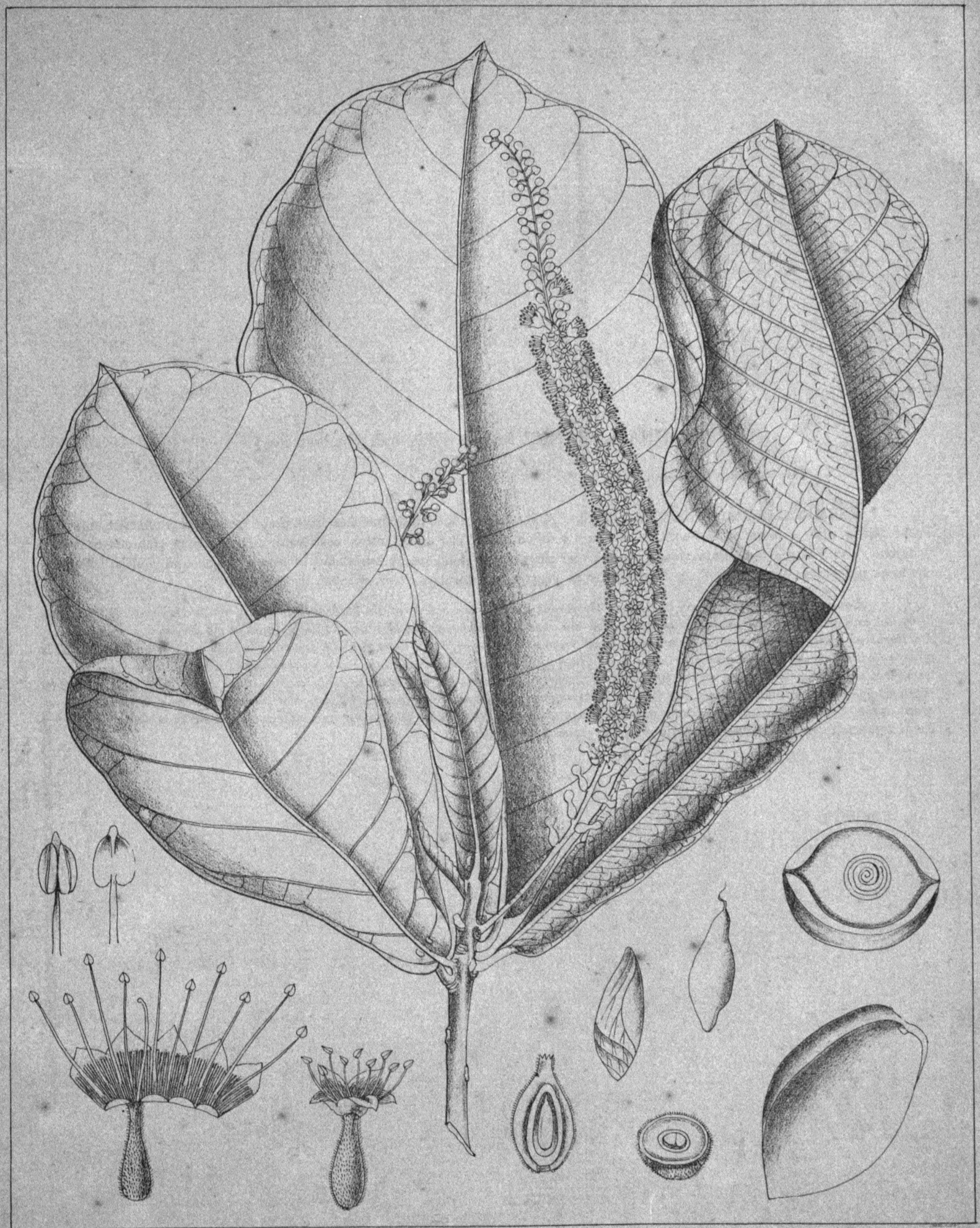
Dumphy, Lith.

TERMINALIA PANICULATA. (Nat. ord. Combretaceæ.)

For Gen. Char. see under "Terminalia tomentosa."

TERMINALIA PANICULATA. (Roxb.) A fine large timber tree, branches diverging, leaves nearly opposite oblong to linear oblong with a more or less cordate base, acute or obtuse at the apex, entire, coriaceous, rugose above glabrous or rarely pubescent, with 2 sessile umbilicate glands beneath near the base, or glandless, spikes terminal forming a compound panicle, fruit with one large and two small wings. *W. A. Prod. p.* 315 ;—Pentaptera paniculata, *Roxb. Fl. Ind.* ii. 442.

A voluable timber tree common in most of the forests on the western side of the Madras Presidency, up to an elevation of 2,000 *or* 3,000 *feet, and also found in Bombay and Bengal, called Marwà in South Canara, Poo Mardà and Pillah Murdà in the Anamallays and Malabar. Dr. Roxburgh gives Pe Karkai as the Tamil name, and Neemeeri as Teligoo, but I never met with any one who knew either of these names. It is often called simply Matti or Mardah, the same name given to Terminalia tomentosa ; it is known by the name of Keerijul in the South Concan, where it is common along the foot of the Ghats. The timber is very good, but not equal to that of Terminalia tomentosa ; it is said to be improved by being kept under water. The bark contains tannin. The tree is not found in Ceylon, nor is it recorded from Birmah ; the tree grows in the Botanical Gardens in Calcutta, where seedlings attained a height of* 20 *feet with a circumference of* 18 *inches in eight years ; it has been introduced into our plantations at Nellumbur, and grows well from seed.*



Govindoo, del.

Terminalia Catappa (Linn.)

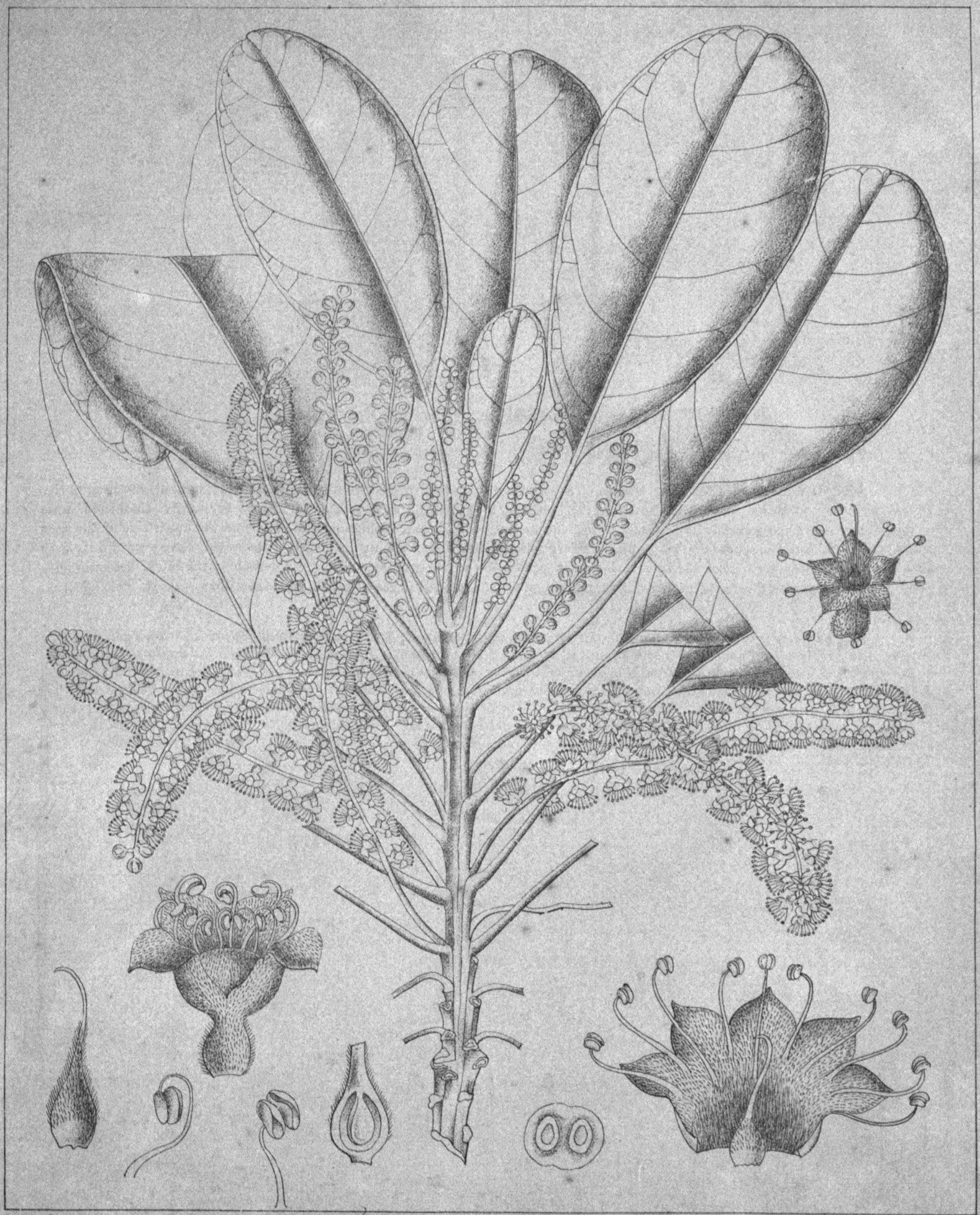
Dumphy, Lith.

TERMINALIA BELERICA. (Nat. ord. Combretaceæ.)

For Gen. Char. see under "Terminalia tomentosa."

TERMINALIA BELERICA. (Roxb.) A very large tree, with an erect trunk and large spreading head, flowering in the hot season, leaves crowded about the extremities of the branches, long petioled, oval to obovate obtuse or shortly acuminated, quite entire glabrous above and generally also beneath, 6 to 7 inches long by 2½ broad, with 2 opposite glands on the upper side of the apex of the petiole and sometimes near the base, spikes axillary solitary simple erect almost the length of the leaves, flowers small dirty-grey fetid, the male towards the apex of the spike and shortly pedicellate with a glandular disk at the bottom of the calyx, hermathrodite below and sessile, drupe obovate obscurely 5-angled, the size of a nutmeg, fleshy, covered with grey silky down. *Roxb. Fl. Ind.* ii. *p.* 341 ;—*W. A. Prod. p.* 313.

This fine large tree is common throughout the Madras Presidency, Bengal, Bombay, Birmah and Ceylon; it is universally known in this Presidency by the name Thani, which is both Tamil and Telugu, in South Canara it is called Santi, in Bengal Bahera, in Bombay Bherda, in Birmah Titseim, and in Ceylon Bulu. The wood is white and rather soft, but much used in some parts of the Presidency, and said to be tolerably durable; it answers well for packing-cases and coffee boxes, and catamarans and grain measures are made from it, and in Malabar and South Canara the tree is sometimes hollowed out for canoes; the kernels of the fruit are eaten by the natives, and also used medicinally; the fruit is used in dying and tanning, and the leaves also for the latter purpose; the dried fruit is said to be astringent and laxative (as the Ægle fruit); an oil is expressed from the seed, which is used for strengthening the hair, and a gum issues from wounds in the bark. The tree has been introduced into the Calcutta Botanical Gardens.



Govindoo, del.

Terminalia Belerica (Roxb.)

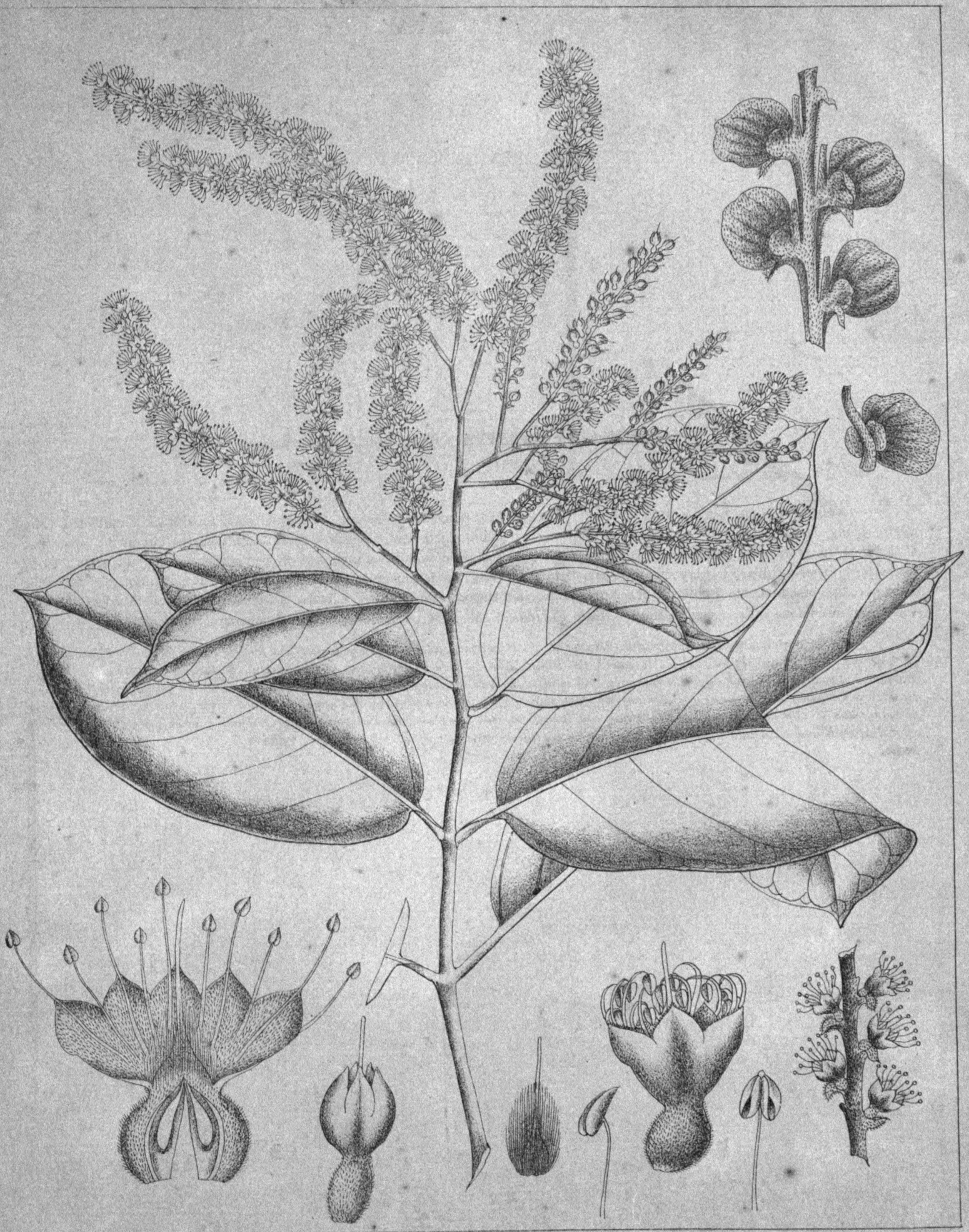
Dumphy, Lith.

TERMINALIA CATAPPA. (Nat. ord. Combretaceæ.)

For Gen. Char. see under " T. tomentosa."

TERMINALIA CATAPPA. (Willd.) A large tree, branches horizontal verticelled, bark smooth, of a dull olive color whilst young, leaves about the extremities of the branches glabrous subsessile obovate crenate and attenuated, but at the same time slightly cordate at the base ; a little repand with a large depressed gland beneath on each side of the midrib near the base, from 6 to 12 inches long, racemes axillary solitary simple shorter than the leaves, flowers numerous, small dull whitish, male most numerous above the hermathrodite, bracts minute deciduous, drupe oval compressed smooth with elevated navicular margins, convex on both sides, yellowish when ripe, nut oblong with a rough surface. *Roxb. Fl. Ind.* ii. 430 ;—*W. A. Prod. p.* 313 ;—Adamaram, *Rheede Mal.* iv *t.* 3, 4.

A highly ornamental tree much planted throughout the Presidency, and met with in some of our forests, but doubtfully indigenous ; it is in flower and fruit throughout the year ; it is called the Indian Almond tree by Europeans, in Hindustani, Badam or Junglibadam, and in Malabar Nat vadom. It makes a good avenue tree, and is well worthy of extended cultivation. The wood is light but tolerably durable, and is used for various purposes, and the levers of Pakottahs are often made of it ; the kernels of the nuts are eaten and are very palatable; the oil expressed from the seeds is very like Almond oil, and the oil cake is used to feed pigs ; the bark and leaves yield a black pigment with which the natives color their teeth and make into Indian ink ; the juice of the leaves and milk of the nut are used medicinally; the tussa silk-worms feed on the leaves.



Govindoo, del.

Dumphy, Lith.

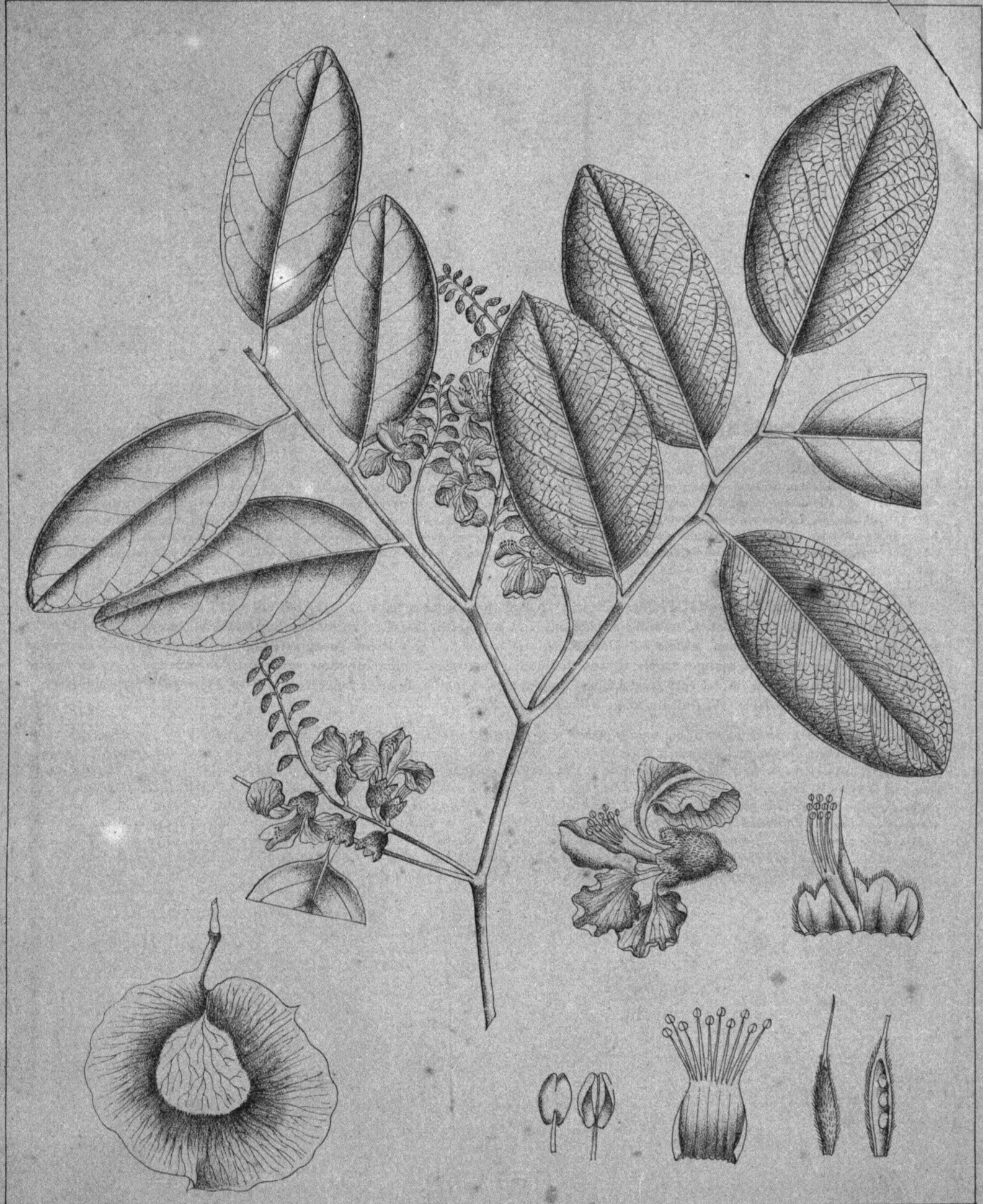
Terminalia paniculata (Roxb.)

PTEROCARPUS MARSUPIUM. (Nat. ord. Leguminosæ ; Sub-order Papilionaceæ ; Tribe Dalbergieæ.)

PTEROCARPUS. (Linn.) *Gen. Pl. p.* 547.—Calyx turbinato-campanulate, acute at the base, often incurved 5-toothed sub-bilabiate. Corol papilionaceous vexillum orbicular or broadly ovate ; wings obliquely obovate or oblong, keel petals distinct or slightly cohering, stamens 10 all connate into one sheath or equally diadelphous 5-5 or unequally diadelphous 9-1, anthers versatile, ovary stalked or sessile 2-6 ovuled, style filiform slightly incurved, stigma small terminal, legume compressed indehiscent orbicular or ovate more or less oblique or falcate, style lateral or rarely terminal, surrounded by a wing, woody and often rugose in the middle where the seed is lodged, seeds 1-2 separated by hard partitions oblong or subreniform radicle short incurved ; unarmed trees, leaves alternate unequally pinnated, leaflets alternate or irregularly opposite exstipulate, flowers yellow in axillary or terminal racemes or panicles.

PTEROCARPUS MARSUPIUM. (Roxb.) A large tree, trunk erect very high, but not often straight ; bark outer-coat brown, spongy, falling off in flakes, inwardly red, fibrous, and astringent, branches spreading horizontal, numerous, leaves alternate unequally pinnate 8-9 inches long, leaflets 5-7 alternate elliptic to oblong or obovate emarginate firm, above shining and deep-green 3-5 inches long by 2-3 broad, racemes simple or panicled axillary or terminal, flowers yellow, stamens 10 monadelphous or at length splitting into equal divisions of 5-5 each (isadelphous) legume stipitate obliquely orbicular, surrounded by a waved veined membranaceous wing, style lateral. *Roxb. Fl. Ind.* iii. 234 ;—*W. A. Prod.* 266.

Next to teak and blackwood, our most valuable timber tree, abundant throughout the Madras Presidency and in Mysore, Bengal, Bombay and Ceylon. Its size and manner of growth differ very much under different circumstances : it is often very poor and scraggy, but attains a fine size in our western forests and in favorable ravines, and subalpine jungles elsewhere ; it is seldom found "of any size" above 4,000 feet elevation, and is generally in flower in July, but I have seen it in flower at other seasons. It is most generally known by its Tamil name Vengay, and is called Yeggi in Telugoo, Bengha in South Canara, Hone in Mysore and Coorg, Beejàsà, Peèa Sal or Peet Sâl in Bengal, Bibla in Bombay, and Gammalu in Ceylon. The timber is dark colored and strong, and much prized for building purposes, and in some parts of our Presidency fetches as high a price as teak. Mr. Rohde says it is the best timber he knows for exposed venetians and weather boards ; it gives out a yellow stain when damp ; it is attacked by the Teredo navalis when used for the bottoms of ships, and is apt to warp if sawn green. A reddish gum resin exudes from wounds in the bark, which is known as Kino or Dragon's blood, and is largely exported from Malabar.



Govindoo, del.

Dumphy, Lith:

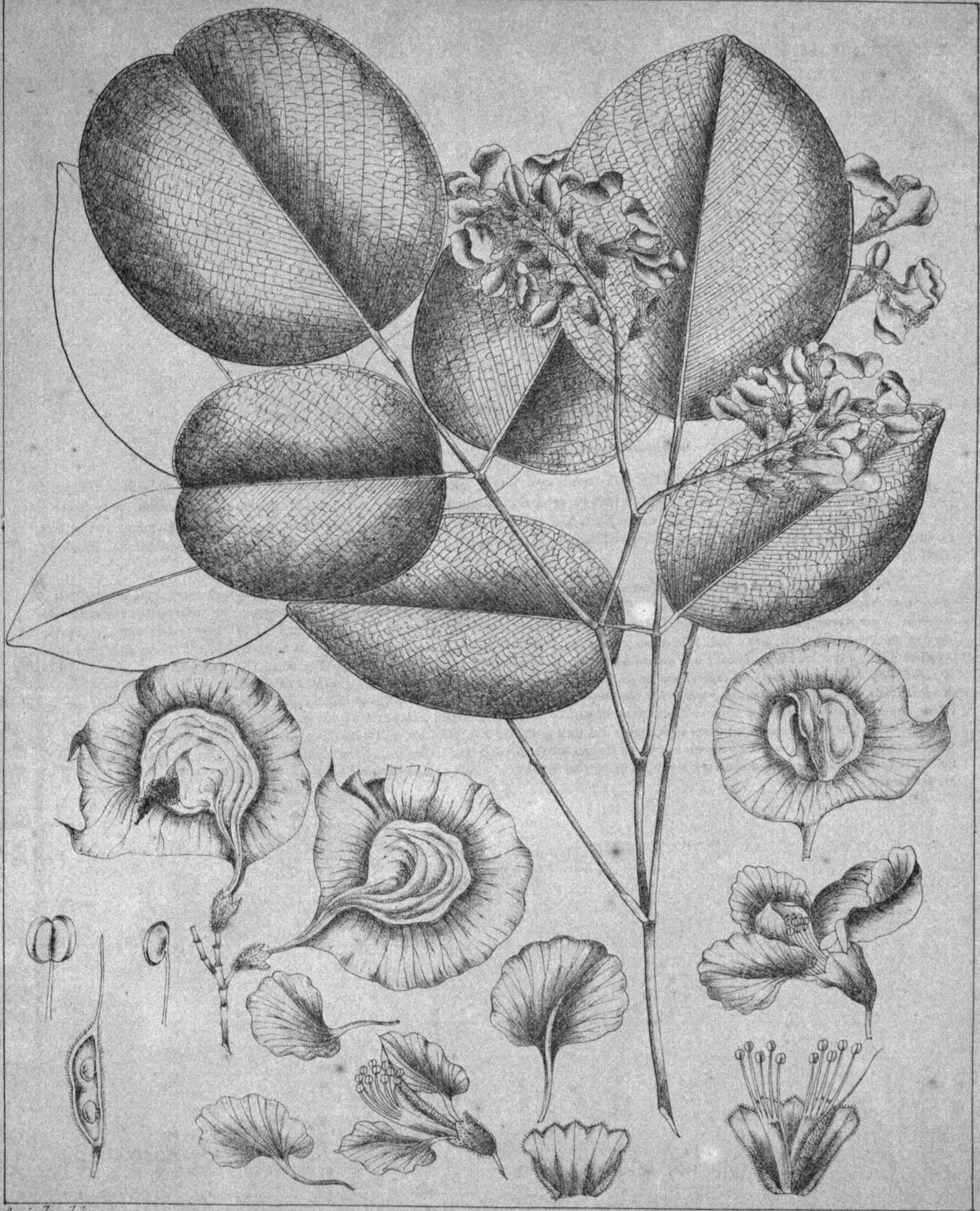
Pterocarpus marsupium (Roxb:)

PTEROCARPUS SANTALINUS. (Nat. ord. Leguminosæ.)

For Gen. Char. see under "Pterocarpus marsupium."

PTEROCARPUS SANTALINUS. A small tree, leaves alternate, unequally pinnate 6-8 inches long, leaflets always 3, lower pair alternate or sub-opposite, all broadly ovate to orbicular deeply emarginate or retuse at the apex, sub-cordate or rounded at the base, about 3 inches long by 2½ broad, young parts and under surface of the leaves slightly sericeous, panicles terminal or axillary, calyx slightly puberulous, stamens isadelphous (5-5) legume surrounded by a wing (as in the genus) uniform, style lateral. *Roxb. Fl. Ind.* iii. 234.

This is the famous red sanders tree of commerce; it differs from the (Vengay) Pterocarpus marsupium (which it much resembles in flower and fruit) by always having 3 instead of 5-7 leaflets. It was thus described correctly by Dr. Roxburgh, but subsequent authorities have described it erroneously as having 5-7 leaflets. It is abundant on the low hills about the Cuddapah and North Arcot forests, and the southern part of the Kurnool district, and I have seen a few trees in the Godavery forests. I have never met with it elsewhere in our Presidency, and it is not I believe found anywhere else in India; it is known by the native names of Shandum and Chandam. The wood is of a fine red color and beautifully streaked, very hard and heavy, and takes a fine polish; it is much used and highly prized by the natives for building purposes and for turnery in Madras and the districts in which it grows; it is also largely exported from Madras as a dye wood, and used as ballast; it is a very small tree, not often found over 3½ or 4 feet in girth and about 20 to 25 feet in height, the largest trees reach 4½ feet in girth, but are then much heart shaken or hollow. The largest tree in our plantations is five years old, and is 18 feet 5 inches high, and 9 inches in girth:—a bandy-load of selected logs will sell for as much as 200 Rupees, i. e., twenty logs at 10 Rupees each; the roots and stumps used for dying purposes, sell at 6 to 9 Rupees the 1,000 lbs. The cattle during the dry season are much fed upon the leaves of this tree, and young saplings are often bodily cut down by thousands by the cowherds.



Govindoo del.

Pterocarpus santalinus (Linn.)

Dumphy, Lith.

PTEROCARPUS INDICUS. (Nat. ord. Leguminosæ.)

For Gen. Char. see under "Pterocarpus marsupium."

PTEROCARPUS INDICUS. (Willd.) A tree of considerable size, trunk straight, bark tolerably smooth ash-colored, leaves alternate unequally pinnate 6-15 inches long, leaflets 7-9 (rarely more) ovate acuminate firm and polished on both sides, alternate short petioled from 2 to 4 inches long by 1½ to 2 broad, racemes axillary at the apex of the branchlets and forming a terminal panicle flowers numerous yellow fragrant, stamens 10 monadelphous at length isadelphous (5-5) (the vexillum-stamen rarely free) legume stipitate obliquely suborbicular style lateral, seeds 1-2. *Roxb. Fl. Ind.* iii. 239;—*Willd. El. Sp.* iii. 904;—Pterocarpus dalbergioides, *Roxb. Fl. Ind.* iii. 236;—Pterocarpus Wallichii and P. dalbergioides, *Wight and Arn. Prod. p.* 267.—(Pterocarpus flavus, *Lour*, and P. obtusatus, *Mig. Fl. Ned. Ind.* i. *p.* 136, both probably belong to this species.)

A very handsome tree, said to be indigenous to Southern India, but I have never met with it wild; it is cultivated in gardens and is well deserving of extended cultivation; it is common in Birmah, where it is called Padouk, and in the Andamans, where it is known as red wood; it is also found in Malacca, Penang, Sumatra, Java, Philippine Islands, and South China. It yields a valuable red-colored beautiful timber, which is much used in the Gun-carriage Manufactories in Madras and Bengal. Dr. Brandis says that the wood is prized above all others in Birmah for cart wheels; the trees are felled green and split up into short planks 3 feet 6 inches long by 2 feet wide and 9 inches thick; three of these pieces make one wheel, and a pair are sold in the forests from 12 *to* 25 *Rs.*

The wood is used for furniture, and by the Birmese for musical instruments; it weighs about 60 *lbs. the cubic foot.*

Govindoo: del. Dumphy, lith.

Pterocarpus Indicus (Willd.)

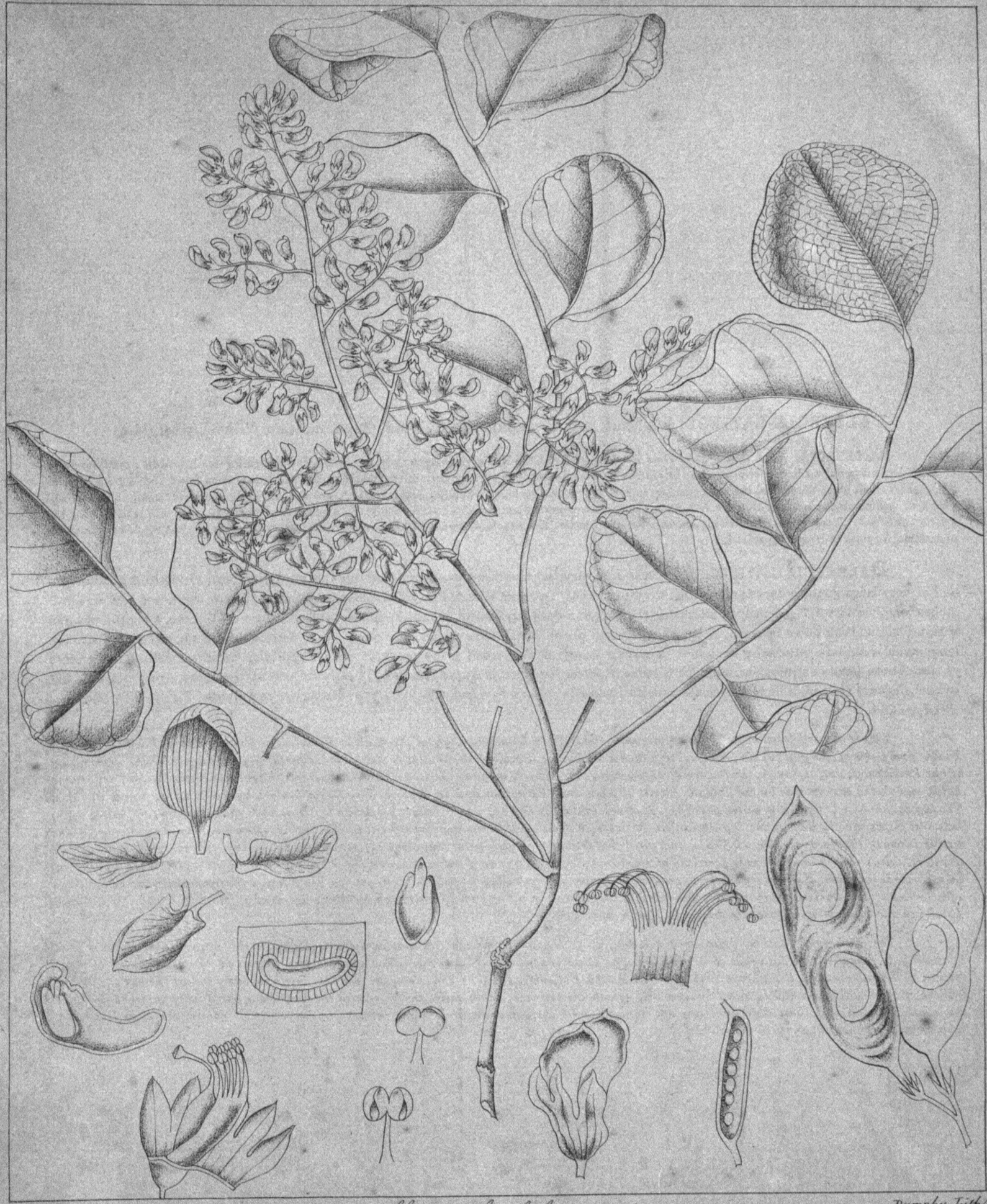
DALBERGIA LATIFOLIA. (Nat. ord. Leguminosæ ; Sub-ord. Papilionaceæ ; Tribe Dalbergieæ.)

DALBERGIA. (L. f. Suppl. 52.) *Gen. Pl.* 544.—GEN. CHAR. Calyx campanulate 5-toothed, the 2 superior teeth broader, vexillum ovate or orbicular, wings oblong free, keel petals free or connate above, stamens 9-10 all connate into one sheath or the vexillum stamen free 9 and 1 or isadelphous 5-5, anthers small erect didymous, the cells opening at the top or rarely longitudinally, ovary stalked, few ovuled, style incurved small, stigma small terminal, legume oblong or linear thin flat and indehiscent, often wrinkled and thickened about the seed ; seeds 1 or rarely 2-4, large thin and flat in the centre of the pod. Trees or woody climbers, leaves alternate pinnate, the leaflets alternate with a terminal odd one (very rarely 1 foliate), flowers small in dichotomous cymes or irregular panicles.

DALBERGIA LATIFOLIA, (Roxb.) A very large timber tree, trunk erect though rarely straight, rising to a great height and of very large girth, branches spreading, very numerous, forming a large shady head, leaves alternate pinnate with an odd one 6-9 inches long, leaflets 3-7 generally 5 alternate, the exterior ones largest and roundish, emarginate, a little waved above, smooth, covered with a little whitish down beneath, at length glabrous, about 2 inches long and the same broad, petioles round smooth ¼ to ½ an inch long, panicles axillary terminal glabrous or minutely hoary, flowers small white on short slender pedicels, calyx segments oblong more or less obtuse, petals unquiculate, stamens 9 monadelphous, style subulate, stigma small, nearly as long as the ovary, ovary stalked, 3-7 ovuled, legume stalked, oblong lanceolate usually 1-seeded. *Roxb. Fl. Ind.* iii. 221, and Dalbergia emarginata, *l. c. p.* 224 ;—*W. A. Prod. p.* 264.

This is the well-known blackwood or rosewood tree. It is found throughout the Madras Presidency, Mysore, Coorg, Bombay, Central India, and parts of Bengal, Sikkim, and in the Andaman Islands; it grows to a very large size on the mountains, particularly on the western side of our Presidency; and I have measured trees considerably over 20 feet in girth ; it is generally known in our western forests by the Tamil name Eetee, and on the eastern side by the Telugoo names Jitegee and Yerugudu, and in Mysore and South Canara by the Canarese names Biti and Thodágatti, and in Bengal it is called Sit Sál. It is not found in Ceylon, nor I believe in Birmah. It ascends the mountains to nearly 4,000 feet, and grows equally well in the dry deciduous forests with teak, and in the moist evergreen sholas, and is often associated with bamboo. The timber is one of the most valuable in India, and generally fetches a higher price than teak; it is very heavy, strong, fibrous, close-grained and durable; it differs much in color but is generally purple-black ; it admits of a very fine polish, and is our best furniture wood, and extensively used for Gun-carriage purposes. It grows readily from seed but is of very slow growth, particularly when young. The Forest Department have had plantations of it for some years in South Canara and Malabar, but the plants are still very small : self-sown seedlings are generally to be met with about Coffee Estates in our western forests; the tree flowers in March and April.

The Dalbergia sissoides (Graham), common about the forests of the Coimbatore district, Palghat, the Anamallays, Madura and Tinnevelly, is a smaller tree than that of D. latifolia. The wood is generally of a redder color, and the tree flowers in the rainy season (July), instead of the hot weather; it is always distinguished by the Palghat axmen as the Eeruputu, the D. latifolia being called Eetee (Dr. Wight transposes these native names). I cannot however distinguish the two trees botanically; the flowers of the sissoides are said to be rather larger and the leaves narrower, but these differences are not constant, and the same drawing might answer for either tree : I cannot therefore look upon sissoides as more than a variety of latifolia.



Govindoo, del. Dumphy, Lith:

Dalbergia latifolia (Roxb:)

OUTLINES OF BOTANY

TO ACCOMPANY THE FLORA SYLVATICA.

From Mr. Bentham's 'Flora Australiensis.'

CHAP. I. DEFINITIONS AND DESCRIPTIVE BOTANY.

1. THE principal object of a **Flora** of a country is to afford the means of *determining* (*i. e.* ascertaining the name of) any plant growing in it, whether for the purpose of ulterior study or of intellectual exercise.

2. With this view, a Flora consists of descriptions of all the wild or native plants contained in the country in question, so drawn up and arranged that the student may identify with the corresponding description any individual specimen which he may gather.

3. These descriptions should be *clear*, *concise*, *accurate*, and *characteristic*, so as that each one should be readily adapted to the plant it relates to, and to no other one; they should be as nearly as possible arranged under *natural* (184) divisions, so as to facilitate the comparison of each plant with those nearest allied to it; and they should be accompanied by an *artificial key* or index, by means of which the student may be guided step by step in the observation of such peculiarities or *characters* in his plant, as may lead him, with the least delay, to the individual description belonging to it.

4. For descriptions to be clear and readily intelligible, they should be expressed as much as possible in ordinary well-established language. But, for the purpose of accuracy, it is necessary not only to give a more precise technical meaning to many terms used more or less vaguely in common conversation, but also to introduce purely technical names for such parts of plants or forms as are of little importance except to the botanist. In the present chapter it is proposed to define such *technical* or *technically limited* terms as are made use of in these Floras.

5. At the same time mathematical accuracy must not be expected. The forms and appearances assumed by plants and their parts are infinite. Names cannot be invented for all; those even that have been proposed are too numerous for ordinary memories. Many are derived from supposed resemblances to well-known forms or objects. These resemblances are differently appreciated by different persons, and the same term is not only differently applied by two different botanists, but it frequently happens that the same writer is led on different occasions to give somewhat different meanings to the same word. The botanist's endeavours should always be, on the one hand, to make as near an approach to precision as circumstances will allow; and on the other hand, to avoid that prolixity of detail and overloading with technical terms which tends rather to confusion than clearness. In this he will be more or less successful. The aptness of a botanical description, like the beauty of a work of imagination, will always vary with the style and genius of the author.

§ 1. *The Plant in General.*

6. The **Plant**, in its botanical sense, includes every being which has *vegetable life*, from the loftiest tree which adorns our landscapes, to the humblest moss which grows on its stem, to the mould or fungus which attacks our provisions, or the green scum that floats on our ponds.

7. Every portion of a plant which has a distinct part or *function* to perform in the operations or phenomena of vegetable life is called an **Organ**.

8. What constitutes *vegetable life*, and what are the functions of each organ, belong to *Vegetable Physiology*; the microscopical structure of the tissues composing the organs, to *Vegetable Anatomy*; the composition of the substances of which they are formed, to *Vegetable Chemistry*; under *Descriptive and Systematic Botany* we have chiefly to consider the forms of organs, that is, their *Morphology*, in the proper sense of the term, and their general structure, so far as it affects classification and specific resemblances and differences. The terms we shall now define belong chiefly to the latter branch of Botany, as being that which is essential for the investigation of the Flora of a country. We shall add, however, a short chapter on Vegetable Anatomy and Physiology, as a general knowledge of both imparts an additional interest to and facilitates the comparison of the characters and affinities of the plants examined.

9. In the more perfect plants their organs are comprised in the general terms **Root**, **Stem**, **Leaves**, **Flowers**, and **Fruit**. Of these the three first, whose function is to assist in the growth of the plant, are *Organs of Vegetation*; the flower and fruit, whose office is the formation of the seed, are the *Organs of Reproduction*.

10. All these organs exist, in one shape or another, at some period of the life of most, if not all, *flowering plants*, technically called *phænogamous* or *phanerogamous plants*: which all bear some kind of flower and fruit in the botanical sense of the term. In the lower classes, the ferns, mosses, fungi, moulds or mildews, seaweeds, etc., called by botanists *cryptogamous plants*, the flowers, the fruit, and not unfrequently one or more of the organs of vegetation, are either wanting, or replaced by organs so different as to be hardly capable of bearing the same name.

11. The observations comprised in the following pages refer exclusively to the flowering or phænogamous plants. The study of the cryptogamous classes has now become so complicated as to form almost a separate Science. They are therefore not included in these introductory observations, nor with the exception of ferns and their allies, in the present Flora.

12. **Plants** are

Monocarpic, if they die after one flowering-season. These include *Annuals*, which flower in the same year in which they are raised from seed; and *Biennials*, which only flower in the year following that in which they are sown.

Caulocarpic, if, after flowering, the whole or part of the plant lives through the winter and produces fresh flowers another season. These include *Herbaceous perennials*, in which the greater part of the plant dies after flowering, leaving only a small perennial portion called the Stock or Caudex, close to or within the earth; *Undershrubs*, *suffruticose suffrutescent* plants, in which the flowering branches, forming a considerable portion of the plant,

die down after flowering, but leave a more or less prominent perennial and woody base; *Shrubs (frutescent* or *fruticose plants)*, in which the perennial woody part forms the greater part of the plant, but branches near the base, and does not much exceed a man's height; and *Trees (arboreous* or *arborescent plants)* when the height is greater and forms a woody *trunk*, scarcely branching from the base. *Bushes* are low, much branched shrubs.

13. The terms *Monocarpic* and *Caulocarpic* are but little used, but the other distinctions enumerated above are universally attended to, although more useful to the gardener than to the botanist, who cannot always assign to them any precise character. Monocarpic plants, which require more than two or three years to produce their flowers, will often, under certain circumstances, become herbaceous perennials, and are generally confounded with them. Truly perennial herbs will often commence flowering the first year, and have then all the appearance of annuals. Many tall shrubs and trees lose annually their flowering branches like undershrubs. And the same botanical species may be an annual or a perennial, a herbaceous perennial or an undershrub, an undershrub or a shrub, a shrub or a tree, according to climate, treatment, or variety.

14. Plants are usually *terrestrial*, that is, growing on earth, or *aquatic*, *i. e.* growing in water; but sometimes they may be found attached by their roots to other plants, in which case they are *epiphytes*; when simply growing upon other plants without penetrating into their tissue, *parasites* when their roots penetrate into and derive more or less nutriment from the plant to which they are attached.

15. The simplest form of the perfect plant, the annual, consists of—

(1) The **Root**, or descending axis, which grows downwards from the stem, divides and spreads in the earth or water, and absorbs food for the plant through the extremities of its branches.

(2) The **Stem**, or ascending axis, which grows upwards from the root, branches and bears first one or more leaves in succession, then one or more flowers, and finally one or more fruits. It contains the tissues or other channels (217) by which the nutriment absorbed by the roots is conveyed in the form of *sap* (192) to the leaves or other points of the surface of the plant, to be *elaborated* or *digested* (218), and afterwards redistributed over different parts of the plant for its support and growth.

(3) The **Leaves**, usually flat, green, and horizontal, are variously arranged on the stem and its branches. They *elaborate* or *digest* (218) the nutriment brought to them through the stem, absorb carbonic acid gas from the air, exhaling the superfluous oxygen, and returning the assimilated sap to the stem.

(4) The **Flowers**, usually placed at or towards the extremities of the branches. They are destined to form the future seed. When perfect and complete they consist: 1st, of a *pistil* in the centre, consisting of one or more *carpels*, each containing the germ of one or more seeds; 2nd, of one or more *stamens* outside the pistil, whose action is necessary to *fertilize* the pistil or enable it to ripen its seed; 3rd, of a *perianth* or *floral envelope*, which usually encloses the stamens and pistil when young, and expands and exposes them to view when fully formed. This complete perianth is double: the outer one, called *Calyx*, is usually more green and leaf like; the inner one called the *Corolla*, more conspicuous, and variously coloured. It is the perianth, and especially the corolla, as the most showy part, that is generally called the flower in popular language.

(5) The **Fruit**, consisting of the pistil or its lower portion, which persists or remains attached to the plant after the remainder of the flower has withered and fallen off. It enlarges and alters more or less in shape or consistence, becomes a *seed-vessel*, enclosing the seed until it is ripe, when it either opens to discharge the seed or falls to the ground with the seed. In popular language the term *fruit* is often limited to such seed-vessels as are or look juicy and eatable. Botanists give that name to all seed-vessels.

16. The herbaceous perennial resembles the annual during the first year of its growth; but it also forms (usually towards the close of the season), on its *stock* (the portion of the stem and root which does not die), one or more *buds*, either exposed, and then popularly called *eyes* or concealed among leaves. These buds, called *leaf-buds*, to distinguish them from *flower-buds* or unopened flowers, are future branches as yet undeveloped; they remain dormant through the winter, and the following spring grow out into new stems bearing leaves and flowers like those of the preceding year, whilst the lower part of the stock emits fresh roots to replace those which had perished at the same time as the stems.

17. Shrubs and trees form similar leaf-buds either at the extremity of their branches, or along the branches of the ear. In the latter case these buds are usually *axillary*, that is, they appear in the *axil* of each leaf, *i. e.* in the angle formed by the leaf and the branch. When they appear at any other part of the plant, they are called *adventitious*. If these buds by producing roots (19) become distinct plants before separating from the parent, or if adventitious leaf-buds are produced in the place of flowers or seeds, the plant is said to be *vivipárous* or *proliferous*.

§ 2. *The Root.*

18. **Roots** ordinarily produce neither buds, leaves, nor flowers. Their branches, called *fibres*, when slender and long proceed irregularly from any part of their surface.

19. Although roots proceed usually from the base of the stem or stock, they may also be produced from the base of any bud, especially if the bud lie along the ground, or is otherwise placed by nature or art in circumstances favourable for their development, or indeed occasionally from almost any part of the plant. They are then often distinguished as *adventitious*, and this term is by some applied to all roots which are not in prolongation of the original radicle.

20. **Roots** are

fibrous, when they consist chiefly of slender fibres.

tuberous, when either the main root or its branches are thickened into one or more short fleshy or woody masses called *tubers* (25).

taproots, when the main root descends perpendicularly into the earth, emitting only very small fibrous branches.

21. The stock of a herbaceous perennial, or the lower part of the stem of an annual or perennial, or the lowest branches of a plant, are sometimes underground and assume the appearance of a root. They then take the name of *rhizome*. The rhizome may always be distinguished from the true root by the presence or production of one or more buds, or leaves, or scales.

§ 3. *The Stock.*

22. The **Stock** of a herbaceous perennial, in its most complete state, includes a small portion of the summits of the previous year's roots, as well as of the base of the previous year's stems. Such stocks will increase yearly, so as at length to form dense tufts. They will often preserve through the winter a few leaves, amongst which are placed the buds which grow out into stems the following year, whilst the under side of the stock emits new roots from or amongst the remains of the old ones. These perennial stocks only differ from the permanent base of an undershrub in the shortness of the perennial part of the stems and in the texture usually less woody.

23. In some perennials, however, the stock consists merely of a branch, which proceeds in autumn from the base of the stem either aboveground or underground, and produces one or more buds. This branch, or a portion of it, alone survives the winter. In the following year its buds produce the new stem and roots, whilst the rest of the plant, even the branch on which these buds were formed, has died away. These *annual stocks*, called sometimes

Hybernacula, *offsets*, or *stolons*, keep up the communication between the annual stem and root of one year and those of the following year, thus forming altogether a perennial plant.

24. The stock, whether annual or perennial, is often entirely underground or root-like. This is the *rootstock*, to which some botanists limit the meaning of the term *rhizome*. When the stock is entirely root-like, it is popularly called the *crown* of the root.

25. The term *tuber* is applied to a short, thick, more or less succulent rootstock or rhizome, as well as to a root of that shape (20), although some botanists propose to restrict its meaning to the one or to the other. An Orchis tuber, called by some a *knob*, is an annual tuberous rootstock with one bud at the top. A potato is an annual tuberous rootstock with several buds.

26. A *bulb* is a stock of a shape approaching to globular, usually rather conical above and flattened underneath, in which the bud or buds are concealed, or nearly so, under *scales*. These scales are the more or less thickened bases of the decayed leaves of the preceding year, or of the undeveloped leaves of the future year, or of both. Bulbs are annual or perennial, usually underground or close to the ground, but occasionally buds in the axils of the upper leaves become transformed into bulbs. Bulbs are said to be *scaly* when their scales are thick and loosely imbricated, *tunicated* when the scales are thinner, broader, and closely rolled round each other in concentric layers.

27. A *corm* is a tuberous rootstock, usually annual, shaped like a bulb, but in which the bud or buds are not covered by scales, or of which the scales are very thin and membranous.

§ 4. *The Stem.*

28. **Stems** are

erect, when they ascend perpendicularly from the root or stock; *twiggy* or *virgate*, when at the same time they are slender, stiff, and scarcely branched.

sarmentose, when the branches of a woody stem are long and weak, although scarcely climbing.

decumbent or *ascending*, when they spread horizontally, or nearly so, at the base, and then turn upwards and become erect.

procumbent, when they spread along the ground the whole or the greater portion of their length; *diffuse*, when at the same time very much and rather loosely branched.

prostrate, when they lie still closer to the ground.

creeping, when they emit roots at their nodes. This term is also frequently applied to any rhizomes or roots which spread horizontally.

tufted or *cæspitose*, when very short, close, and many together from the same stock.

29. Weak climbing stems are said to *twine*, when they support themselves by winding spirally round any object; such stems are also called *voluble*. When they simply climb without twining, they support themselves by their leaves, or by special clasping organs called *tendrils* (169), or sometimes like the Ivy, by small root-like excrescences.

30. *Suckers* are young plants formed at the end of creeping, underground rootstocks. *Scions*, *runners*, and *stolons*, or *stoles*, are names given to young plants formed at the end or at the nodes (31) of branches or stocks creeping wholly or partially above-ground, or sometimes to the creeping stocks themselves.

31. A *node* is a point of the stem or its branches at which one or more leaves, branches, or leaf-buds (16) are given off. An *internode* is the portion of the stem comprised between two nodes.

32. **Branches** or **leaves** are

opposite, when two proceed from the same node on opposite sides of the stem.

whorled or *verticillate* (in a *whorl* or *verticil*), when several proceed from the same node, arranged regularly round the stem; *geminate*, *ternate*, *fascicled*, or *fasciculate* when two, three, or more proceed from the same node on the same side of the stem. A tuft of fasciculate leaves is usually in fact a leafy branch, so short that the leaves appear to proceed all from the same point.

alternate, when one only proceeds from each node, one on one side and the next above or below, though usually not in the same vertical line.

decussate, when opposite, but each pair placed at right-angles to the next pair above or below it; *distichous*, when regularly arranged one above another in two opposite rows, one on each side of the stem; *tristichous*, when in three rows, etc. (92).

scattered, when irregularly arranged round the stem; frequently, however, botanists apply the term *alternate* to all branches or leaves that are neither opposite nor whorled.

secund, when all start from or are turned to one side of the stem.

33. **Branches** are *dichotomous* when several times forked, the two branches of each fork being nearly equal; *trichotomous*, when there are three nearly equal branches at each division instead of two; but when the middle branch is evidently the principal one, the stem is usually said to have two opposite branches; *umbellate*, when divided in the same manner into several nearly equal branches proceeding from the same point. If however the central branch is larger than the two or more lateral ones, the stem is said to have opposite or whorled branches, as the case may be.

34. A *culm* is a name sometimes given to the stem of Grasses, Sedges, and some other Monocotyledonous plants.

§ 5. *The Leaves.*

35. The ordinary or perfect **Leaf** consists of a flat *blade* or *lamina*, usually green, and more or less horizontal, attached to the stem by a stalk called a *footstalk* or *petiole*. When the form or dimensions of a leaf are spoken of, it is generally the blade that is meant, without the petiole or stalk.

36. The end by which a leaf, a part of the flower, a seed, or any other organ, is attached to the stem or other organ, is called its *base*, the opposite end is its *apex* or summit, excepting sometimes in the case of anther-cells (115.)

37. **Leaves** are

sessile, when the blade rests on the stem without the intervention of a petiole.

amplexicaul or *stem-clasping*, when the sessile base of the blade clasps the stem horizontally.

perfoliate, when the base of the blade not only clasps the stem, but closes round it on the opposite side, so that the stem appears to pierce through the blade.

decurrent, when the edges of the leaf are continued down the stem so as to form raised lines or narrow appendages, *called wings*.

sheathing, when the base of the blade, or of the more or less expanded petiole, forms a vertical sheath round the stem for some distance above the node.

38. Leaves and flowers are called *radical*, when inserted on a rhizome or stock, or so close to the base of the stem as to appear to proceed from the root, rhizome, or stock; *cauline*, when inserted on a distinct stem. Radical leaves are *rosulate* when they spread in a circle on the ground.

39. **Leaves** are

simple and *entire*, when the blade consists of a single piece, with the margin nowhere indented, *simple* being used in opposition to *compound*, *entire* in opposition to *dentate*, *lobed*, or *divided*.

ciliate, when bordered with thick hairs or fine hair-like teeth.

dentate or *toothed*, when the margin is only cut a little way in, into what have been compared to teeth. Such leaves are *serrate*, when the teeth are regular and pointed like the teeth of a saw; *crenate*, when regular and blunt or rounded (compared to the battlement of a tower); *serrulate*, and *crenulate*, when the serratures or crenatures are small; *sinuate*, when the teeth are broad, not deep, and irregular (compared to bays of the coast); *wavy* or *undulate*, when the edges are not flat, but bent up and down (compared to the waves of the sea).

lobed or *cleft*, when more deeply indented or divided, but so that the incisions do not reach the midrib or petiole. The portions thus divided take the name of *lobes*. When the lobes are narrow and very irregular, the leaves are said to be *laciniate*. The spaces between the teeth or lobes are called *sinuses*.

divided or *dissected*, when the incisions reach the midrib or petiole, but the parts so divided off, called *segments*, do not separate from the petiole, even when the leaf falls, without tearing.

compound, when divided to the midrib or petiole, and the parts so divided off, called *leaflets*, separate, at least at the fall of the leaf, from the petiole, as the whole leaf does from the stem, without tearing. The common stalk upon which the leaflets are inserted is called the *common petiole* or the *rhachis*; the separate stalk of each leaflet is a *petiolule*.

40. Leaves are more or less marked by *veins*, which, starting from the stalk, diverge or branch as the blade widens, and spread all over it more or less visibly. The principal ones, when prominent, are often called *ribs* or *nerves*, the smaller branches only then retaining the name of *veins*, or the latter are termed *veinlets*. The smaller veins are often connected together like the meshes of a net, they are then said to *anastomose*, and the leaf is said to be *reticulate* or *net-veined*. When one principal vein runs direct from the stalk towards the summit of the leaf, it is called the *midrib*. When several start from the stalk, diverge slightly without branching, and converge again towards the summit, they are said to be *parallel* although not mathematically so. When 3 or 5 or more ribs or nerves diverge *from the base*, the leaf is said to be *3-nerved*, *5-nerved*, etc., but if the lateral ones diverge from the midrib a little above the base, the leaf is *tripli-nerved*, *quintuplinerved*, etc. The arrangement of the veins of a leaf is called their *venation*.

41. The **Leaflets, Segments, Lobes** or **veins** of leaves are

pinnate (feathered), when there are several succeeding each other on each side of the midrib or petiole, compared to the branches of a feather. A pinnately lobed or divided leaf is called *lyrate* when the terminal lobe or segment is much larger and broader than the lateral ones, compared, by a stretch of imagination, to a lyre; *runcinate*, when the lateral lobes are curved backwards towards the base of the leaf; *pectinate*, when the lateral lobes are numerous, narrow, and regular, like the teeth of a comb.

palmate or *digitate*, when several diverge from the same point, compared to the fingers of the hand.

ternate, when three only start from the same point, in which case the distinction between the palmate and pinnate arrangement often ceases or can only be determined by analogy with allied plants. A leaf with ternate lobes is called *trifid*. A leaf with three leaflets is sometimes improperly called a ternate leaf: it is the leaflets that are ternate; the whole leaf is *trifoliolate*. Ternate leaves are leaves growing three together.

pedate, when the division is at first ternate, but the two outer branches are forked, the outer ones of each fork again forked, and so on, and all the branches are near together at the base, compared vaguely to the foot of a bird.

42. Leaves with pinnate, palmate, pedate, etc. leaflets, are usually for shortness called *pinnate*, *palmate*, *pedate*, etc. *leaves*. If they are so cut into segments only, they are usually said to be *pinnatisect*, *palmatisect*, *pedatisect*, etc., although the distinction between segments and leaflets is often unheeded in descriptions, and cannot indeed always be ascertained. If the leaves are so cut only into lobes, they are said to be *pinnatifid*, *palmatifid*, *pedatifid*, etc.

43. The teeth, lobes, segments, or leaflets may be again toothed, lobed, divided, or compounded. Some leaves are even three or more times divided or compounded. In the latter case they are termed *decompound*. When twice or thrice pinnate (*bipinnate* or *tripinnate*), each primary or secondary division, with the leaflets it comprises, is called a *pinna*. When the pinna of a leaf or the leaflets of a pinna are in pairs, without an odd terminal pinna or leaflet, the leaf or pinna so divided is said to be *abruptly pinnate*; if there is an odd terminal pinna or leaflet, the leaf or pinna is *unequally pinnate* (*imparipinnatum*).

44. The number of leaves or their parts is expressed adjectively by the following numerals, derived from the Latin:—

uni-, bi-, tri-, quadri-, quinque-, sex-, septem-, octo-, novem-, decem-, multi-

1-, 2-, 3-, 4-, 5-, 6-, 7-, 8-, 9-, 10-, *many*-

prefixed to a termination, indicating the particular kind of part referred to. Thus—

unidentate, *bidentate*, *multidentate*, mean one-toothed, two-toothed, many-toothed, etc.

bifid, *trifid*, *multifid*, mean two-lobed, three-lobed, many-lobed, etc.

unifoliolate, *bifoliolate*, *multifoliolate*, mean having one leaflet, two leaflets, many leaflets, etc.

unifoliate, *bifoliate*, *multifoliate*, mean having one leaf, two leaves, many leaves, etc.

biternate and *triternate*, mean twice or thrice ternately divided.

unijugate, *bijugate*, *multijugate*, etc. pinnæ or leaflets, mean that they are in one, two, many, etc. pairs (*juga*).

45. **Leaves** or their parts, when **flat**, or any other flat organs in plants, are

linear, when long and narrow, at least four or five times as long as broad, falsely compared to a mathematical line, for a linear leaf has always a perceptible breadth.

lanceolate, when about three or more times as long as broad, broadest below the middle, and tapering towards the summit, compared to the head of a lance.

cuneate, when broadest above the middle, and tapering towards the base, compared to a wedge with the point downwards; when very broadly cuneate and rounded at the top, it is often called *flabelliform* or *fan-shaped*.

spathulate, when the broad part near the top is short, and the narrow tapering part long, compared to a spathula or flat ladle.

ovate, when scarcely twice as long as broad, and rather broader below the middle, compared to the longitudinal section of an egg; *obovate* is the same form, with the broadest part above the middle.

deltoid, triangular in the form of the Greek letter Δ.

orbicular, *oval*, *oblong*, *elliptical*, *rhomboidal*, etc., when compared to the corresponding mathematical figures.

transversely oblong, or *oblate*, when conspicuously broader than long.

falcate, when curved like the blade of a scythe.

46. Intermediate forms between any two of the above are expressed by combining two terms. Thus, a *linear-lanceolate* leaf is long and narrow yet broader below the middle, and tapering to a point; a *linear-oblong* one is scarcely narrow enough to be called linear, yet too narrow to be strictly oblong, and does not conspicuously taper either towards the summit or towards the base.

47. The *apex* or *summit* of a leaf is

acute or *pointed*, when it forms an acute angle or tapers to a point.

obtuse or *blunt*, when it forms a very obtuse angle, or more generally when it is more or less rounded at the top.

acuminate or *cuspidate*, when suddenly narrowed at the top, and then more or less prolonged into an *acumen* or *point*, which may be acute or obtuse, linear or tapering. Some botanists make a slight difference between the *acuminate* and *cuspidate* apex, the acumen being more distinct from the rest of the leaf in the latter case than in the former; but in general the two terms are used in the same sense, some preferring the one and some the other.

truncate, when the end is cut off square.

retuse, when very obtuse or truncate, and slightly indented.

emarginate or *notched*, when more decidedly indented at the end of the midrib; *obcordate*, if at the same time approaching the shape of a heart with its point downwards.

mucronate, when the midrib is produced beyond the apex in the form of a small point.

aristate, when the point is fine like a hair.

48. The base of the leaf is liable to the same variations of form as the apex, but the terms more commonly used are *tapering* or *narrowed* for acute and acuminate, *rounded* for obtuse, and *cordate* for emarginate. In all cases the petiole or point of attachment prevent any such absolute termination at the base as at the apex.

49. A leaf my be *cordate* at the base whatever be its length or breadth, or whatever the shape of the two lateral lobes, called *auricles* (or *little ears*), formed by the indenture or notch, but the term *cordiform* or *heart-shaped* leaf is restricted to an ovate and acute leaf, cordate at the base, with rounded auricles. The word auricles is more particularly used as applied to sessile and stem-clasping leaves.

50. If the auricles are pointed, the leaf is more particularly called *auriculate*; it is moreover said to be *sagittate*, when the points are directed downwards, compared to an arrow-head; *hastate*, when the points diverge horizontally, compared to a halbert.

51. A *reniform* leaf is broader than long, slightly but broadly cordate at the base, with rounded auricles, compared to a kidney.

52. In a *peltate* leaf, the stalk, instead of proceeding from the lower edge of the blade, is attached to the under surface, usually near the lower edge, but sometimes in the very centre of the blade. The peltate leaf has usually several principal nerves radiating from the point of attachment, being, in fact, a cordate leaf, with the auricles united.

53. All these modifications of division and form in the leaf pass so gradually one into the other that it is often difficult to say which term is the most applicable—whether the leaf be toothed or lobed, divided or compound, oblong or lanceolate, obtuse or acute, etc. The choice of the most apt expression will depend on the skill of the describer.

54. **Leaves**, when **solid, Stems, Fruits, Tubers**, and other parts of plants, when not flattened like ordinary leaves, are

setaceous or *capillary*, when very slender like bristles or hairs.

acicular when very slender, but stiff and pointed like needles.

subulate, when rather thicker and firmer like awls.

linear, when at least four times as long as thick; *oblong*, when from about two to about four times as long as thick, the terms having the same sense as when applied to flat surfaces.

ovoid, when egg-shaped, with the broad end downwards, *obovoid* if the broad end is upwards; these terms corresponding to *ovate* and *obovate* shapes in flat surfaces.

globular or *spherical*, when corresponding to *orbicular* in a flat surface. *Round* applies to both.

turbinate, when shaped like a top.

conical, when tapering upwards; *obconical*, when tapering downwards, if in both cases a transverse section shows a circle.

pyramidal, when tapering upwards; *obpyramidal*, when tapering downwards, if in both cases a transverse section shows a triangle or polygon

fusiform, or spindle-shaped, when tapering at both ends; *cylindrical*, when not tapering at either end, if in both cases the transverse section shows a circle, or sometimes irrespective of the transverse shape.

terete, when the transverse section is not angular; *trigonous*, *triquetrous*, if the transverse section shows a triangle, irrespective in both cases of longitudinal form.

compressed, when more or less flattened laterally; *depressed*, when more or less flattened vertically, or at any rate at the top; *obcompressed*, (in the achenes of *Compositæ*), when flattened from front to back.

articulate or *jointed*, if at any period of their growth (usually when fully formed and approaching their decay, or in the case of fruits when quite ripe) they separate, without tearing into two or more pieces placed end to end. The joints where they separate are called *articulations*, each separate piece an *article*. The name of *joint* is, in common language, given both to the articulation and the article, but more especially to the former. Some modern botanists, however, propose to restrict it to the article, giving the name of *joining* to the articulation.

didymous, when slightly two-lobed, with rounded obtuse lobes.

moniliform, *torulose*, or beaded, when much contracted at regular intervals, but not separating spontaneously into articles.

55. In their consistence **Leaves** or other organs are

fleshy, when thick and soft; *succulent* is generally used in the same sense, but implies the presence of more juice.

coriaceous, when firm and dry, or very tough, of the consistence of leather.

crustaceous, when firm and brittle.

chartaceous, or *papyraceous*, when of the consistence of paper.

membranous, when thin and not stiff.

scarious or *scariose*, when very thin, more or less transparent and not green, yet rather stiff.

56. The terms applied botanically to the consistence of solids are those in general use in common language.

57. The mode in which unexpanded leaves are disposed in the leaf-bud is called their *vernation* or *præfoliation*; it varies considerably, and technical terms have been proposed to express some of its varieties, but it has been hitherto rarely noticed in descriptive botany.

§ 6. *Scales, Bracts, and Stipules.*

58. **Scales** *(Squamæ)* are leaves very much reduced in size, usually sessile, seldom green or capable of performing the respiratory functions of leaves. In other words, they are organs resembling leaves in their position on the plant, but differing in size, colour, texture, and functions. They are

most frequent on the stock of perennial plants, or at the base of annual branches, especially on the buds of future shoots, when they serve apparently to protect the dormant living germ from the rigour of winter. In the latter case they are usually short, broad, close together, and more or less *imbricated*, that is, overlapping each other like the tiles of a roof. It is this arrangement as well as their usual shape that has suggested the name of *scales*, borrowed from the scales of a fish. Imbricated scales, bracts, or leaves, are said to be *squarrose*, when their tips are pointed and very spreading or recurved.

59. Sometimes, however, most or all the leaves of the plant are reduced to small scales, in which case they do not appear to perform any particular function. The name of *scales* is also given to any small broad scale-like appendages or reduced organs, whether in the flower or any other part of the plant.

60. **Bracts** *(Bracteæ)* are the upper leaves of a plant in flower (either all those of the flowering branches, or only one or two immediately under the flower), when different from the stem leaves in size, shape, colour, or arrangement. They are generally much smaller and more sessile. They often partake of the colour of the flower, although they very frequently also retain the green colour of the leaves. When small they are often called *scales*.

61. *Floral leaves* or *leafy bracts* are generally the lower bracts or the upper leaves at the base of the flowering branches, intermediate in size, shape, or arrangement, between the stem-leaves and the upper bracts.

62. *Bracteoles* are the one or two last bracts under each flower, when they differ materially in size, shape, or arrangement from the other bracts.

63. **Stipules** are leaf-like or scale-like appendages at the base of the leaf-stalk, or on the node of the stem. When present there are generally two, one on each side of the leaf, and they sometimes appear to protect the young leaf before it is developed. They are however exceedingly variable in size and appearance, sometimes exactly like the true leaves, except that they have no buds in their axils, or looking like the leaflets of a compound leaf, sometimes apparently the only leaves of the plant, generally small and narrow, sometimes reduced to minute scales, spots, or scars, sometimes united into one opposite the leaf, or more or less united with, or *adnate* to the petiole, or quite detached from the leaf, and forming a ring or sheath round the stem in the axil of the leaf. In a great number of plants they are entirely wanting.

64. *Stipellæ*, or secondary stipules, are similar organs, sometimes found on compound leaves at the points where the leaflets are inserted.

65. When scales, bracts, or stipules, or almost any part of the plant besides leaves and flowers are stalked, they are said to be *stipitate*, from *stipes*, a *stalk*.

§ 7. *Inflorescence and its Bracts.*

66. The **Inflorescence** of a plant is the arrangement of the flowering branches, and of the flowers upon them. *An Inflorescence* is a flowering branch, or the flowering summit of a plant above the last stem-leaves, with its branches, bracts, and flowers.

67. A single flower, or an inflorescence, is *terminal* when at the summit of a stem or leafy branch, *axillary* when in the axil of a stem leaf, *leaf-opposed* when opposite to a stem-leaf. The inflorescence of a plant is said to be *terminal* or *determinate* when the main stem and principal branches end in a flower or inflorescence (not in a leaf-bud), *axillary* or *indeterminate* when all the flowers or inflorescences are axillary, the stem or branches ending in leaf-buds.

68. A *Peduncle* is the stalk of a solitary flower, or of an inflorescence; that is to say, the portion of the flowering branch from the last stem-leaf to the flower, or to the first ramification of the inflorescence, or even up to its last ramifications. but the portion extending from the first to the last ramifications or the axis of inflorescence is often distinguished under the name of *rhachis*.

69. A *Scape* or *radical Peduncle* is a leafless peduncle proceeding from the stock, or from near the base of the stem, or apparently from the root itself.

70. *Pedicel* is the last branch of an inflorescence, supporting a single flower.

71. The branches of inflorescence may be, like those of stems, opposite, alternate, etc. (32, 33), but very often their arrangement is different from that of the leafy branches of the same plant.

72. **Inflorescence** is

centrifugal, when the terminal flower opens first, and those on the lateral branches are successively developed.

centripetal, when the lowest flowers open first, and the main stem continues to elongate, developing fresh flowers.

73. Determinate inflorescence is usually centrifugal. Indeterminate inflorescence is always centripetal. Both inflorescences may be combined on one plant, for it often happens that the main branches of an inflorescence are centripetal, whilst the flowers on the lateral branches are centrifugal, or *vice versâ*.

74. An **Inflorescence** is

a *Spike*, or *spicate*, when the flowers are sessile along a simple undivided axis or rhachis.

a *Raceme*, or *racemose*, when the flowers are borne on pedicels along a single undivided axis or rhachis.

a *Panicle*, or *paniculate*, when the axis is divided into branches bearing two or more flowers.

a *Head*, or *capitate*, when several sessile or nearly sessile flowers are collected into a compact head-like cluster. The short, flat, convex or conical axis on which the flowers are seated, is called the *receptacle*, a term also used for the torus of a single flower (135). The very compact flower-heads of *Compositæ* are often termed *compound flowers*.

an *Umbel*, or *umbellate*, when several branches or pedicels appear to start from the same point and are nearly of the same length. It differs from the head, like the raceme from the spike, in that the flowers are not sessile. An umbel is said to be *simple*, when each of its branches or *rays* bears a single flower; *compound*, when each ray bears a *partial umbel* or *umbellule*.

a *Corymb*, or *corymbose*, when the branches and pedicels, although starting from different points, all attain the same level, the lower ones being much longer than the upper. It is a flat-topped or *fastigiate* panicle.

a *Cyme*, or *cymose*, when branched and centrifugal. It is a centrifugal panicle, and is often corymbose. The central flower opens first. The lateral branches successively developed are usually forked or opposite (dichotomous or trichotomous), but sometimes after the first forking the branches are no longer divided, but produce a succession of pedicels on their upper side, forming apparently unilateral centripetal racemes; whereas if attentively examined, it will be found that each pedicel is at first terminal, but becomes lateral by the development of one outer branch only immediately under the pedicel. Such branches, when in bud, are generally rolled back at the top, like the tail of a scorpion, and are thence called *scorpioid*.

a *Thyrsus*, or *thyrsoid*, when cymes, usually opposite, are arranged in a narrow pyramidal panicle.

75. There are numerous cases where inflorescences are intermediate between some two of the above, and are called by different botanists by one or the other name, according as they are guided by apparent or by theoretical similarity. A spike-like panicle, where the axis is divided into very short branches forming a cylindrical compact inflorescence, is called sometimes a spike, sometimes a panicle. If the flowers are in distinct clusters along a simple axis, the inflorescence is described as an *interrupted* spike or raceme, according as the flowers are nearly sessile or distinctly pedicellate, although when closely examined the flowers will be found to be inserted not on the main axis, but on a very short branch, thus, strictly speaking, constituting a panicle.

76. The *catkins* (*amenta*) of *Amentaceæ*, the *spadices* of several Monocotyledons, the *ears* and *spikelets* of Grasses are forms of the spike.

77. **Bracts** are generally placed singly under each branch of the inflorescence, and under each pedicel; bracteoles are usually two, one on each side, on the pedicel or close under the flower, or even upon the calyx itself; but bracts are also frequently scattered along the branches without axillary pedicels; and when the differences between the bracts and bracteoles are trifling or immaterial, they are usually all called bracts.

78. When these bracts appear to proceed from the same point, they will, on examination, be found to be really either one bract and two stipules, or one bract with two bracteoles in its axil. When two bracts appear to proceed from the same point, they will usually be found to be the stipules of an undeveloped bract, unless the branches of the inflorescence are opposite, when the bracts will of course be opposite also.

79. When several bracts are collected in a whorl, or are so close together as to appear whorled, or are closely imbricated round the base of a head or umbel, they are collectively called an *Involucre*. The bracts composing an involucre are described under the names of *leaves*, *leaflets*, *bracts*, or *scales*, according to their appearance, *Phyllaries* is a useless term, lately introduced for the bracts or scales of the involucre of *Compositæ*. An Involucel is the involucre of a partial umbel.

80. When several very small bracts are placed round the base of a calyx or of an involucre, they have been termed a *calycule*, and the calyx or involucre said to be *calyculate*, but these terms are now falling into disuse, as conveying a false impression. When the bracts are whorled and inserted upon the calyx, they form what is frequently called an *epicalyx*.

81. A *Spatha* is a bract or floral leaf enclosing the inflorescence of some Monocotyledons.

82. *Palæ*, *pales*, or *Chaff*, are the inner bracts or scales in *Compositæ*, *Gramineæ*, and some other plants, when of a thin yet stiff consistence, usually narrow and of a pale colour.

83. *Glumes* are the bracts enclosing the flowers of *Cyperaceæ* and *Gramineæ*.

§ 8. *The Flower in General.*

84. A *complete* **Flower** (15) is one in which the calyx, corolla, stamens, and pistil are all present; a *perfect* flower, one in which all these organs, or such of them as are present, are capable of performing their several functions. Therefore, properly speaking, an *incomplete* flower is one in which any one or more of these organs is wanting; and an *imperfect* flower one in which any one or more of these organs is so altered as to be incapable of properly performing its functions. These imperfect organs are said to be *abortive* if much reduced in size or efficiency, *rudimentary* if so much so as to be scarcely perceptible. But in many works, the term *incomplete* is specially applied to those flowers in which the perianth is simple or wanting, and *imperfect* to those in which either the stamens or pistil are imperfect or wanting.

85. A **Flower** is

dichlamydeous, when the perianth is double, both calyx and corolla being present and distinct.
monochlamydeous, when the perianth is single, whether by the union of the calyx and corolla, or the deficiency of either.
asepalous, when there is no calyx.
apetalous, when there is no corolla.
naked or *achlamydeous*, when there is no perianth at all.
hermaphrodite or *bisexual*, when both stamens and pistil are present and perfect.
male or *staminate*, when there are one or more stamens, but either no pistil at all or an imperfect one.
female or *pistillate*, when there is a pistil, but either no stamens at all, or only imperfect ones.
neuter, when both stamens and pistil are imperfect or wanting.
barren or *sterile*, when from any cause it produces no seed.
fertile, when it does produce seed. In some works the terms *barren*, *fertile*, and *perfect* are also used respectively as synonyms of *male*, *female*, and *hermaphrodite*.

86. The flowers of a plant or species are said collectively to be *unisexual* or *diclinous* when the flowers are all either male or female.
monœcious, when the male and female flowers are distinct, but on the same plant.
diœcious, when the male and female flowers are on distinct plants.
polygamous, when there are male, female, and hermaphrodite flowers on the same or on distinct plants.

87. A head of flowers is *heterogamous* when male, female, hermaphrodite, and neuter flowers, or any two or three of them, are included in one head; *homogamous*, when all the flowers included in one head are alike in this respect. A spike or head of flowers is *androgynous* when male and female flowers are mixed in it. These terms are only used in the case of very few Natural Orders.

88. As the scales of buds are leaves undeveloped or reduced in size and altered in shape and consistence, and bracts are leaves likewise reduced in size, and occasionally altered in colour; so the parts of the flower are considered as leaves still further altered in shape, colour, and arrangement round the axis, and often more or less combined with each other. The details of this theory constitute the comparatively modern branch of botany called *Vegetable Metamorphosis* or *Homology*, sometimes improperly termed *Morphology* (8).

89. To understand the arrangement of the floral parts, let us take a *complete* flower, in which moreover all the parts are *free* from each other, *definite* in number, *i.e.*, always the same in the same species, and *symmetrical* or *isomerous*, *i.e.* when each whorl consists of the same number of parts.

90. Such a complete symmetrical flower consists usually of either four or five whorls of altered leaves (88), placed immediately one within the other.

The **Calyx** forms the outer whorl. Its parts are called *sepals*.

The **Corolla** forms the next whorl. Its parts, called *petals*, usually *alternate* with the sepals; that is to say, the centre of each petal is immediately over or within the interval between two sepals.

The **Stamens** form one or two whorls within the petals. If two, those of the outer whorl (the *outer stamens*) alternate with the petals, and are consequently opposite to, or over the centre of the sepals; those of the inner whorl (the *inner stamens*) alternate with the outer ones, and are therefore opposite to the petal. If there is only one whorl of stamens, they most frequently alternate with the petals; but sometimes they are opposite the petals and alternate with the sepals.

The **Pistil** forms the inner whorl; its carpels usually alternate with the inner row of stamens.

91. In an axillary or lateral flower the *upper* parts of each whorl (sepals, petals, stamens, or carpels) are those which are next to the main axis of the stems or branch, the *lower* parts those which are furthest from it; the intermediate ones are said to be *lateral*. The words *anterior* (front) and *posterior* (back) are often used for lower and upper respectively, but their meaning is sometimes reversed if the writer supposes himself in the centre of the flower instead of outside of it.

92. The number of parts in each whorl of a flower is expressed adjectively by the following numerals derived from the Greek :—

mono-,	di-,	tri-,	tetra-,	penta-,	hexa-,	hepta-,	octo-,	ennea-,	deca-,	etc-,	poly-
1-,	2-,	3-,	4-,	5-,	6-,	7-,	8-,	9-,	10-,		*many-*

prefixed to a termination indicating the whorl referred to.

92. Thus, a **Flower** is

diepalous, triepalous, tetrasepalous, polysepalous, etc., according as there are 2, 3, 4, or many (or an indefinite number of) sepals.

dipetalous, tripetalous, polypetalous, etc., according as there are 2, 3, or many petals.

diandrous, triandrous, polyandrous, etc., according as there are 2, 3, or many stamens.

digynous, trigynous, polygynous, etc., according as there 2, 3, or many carpels.

And generally (if symmetrical), *dimerous, trimerous, polymerous*, etc., according as there are 2, 3, or many (or an indefinite number of) parts to each whorl.

94. Flowers are *unsymmetrical* or *anisomerous*, strictly speaking, when any one of the whorls has a different number of parts from any other but when the carpels alone are reduced in number the flower is still frequently called symmetrical or isomerous, if the calyx, corolla, and staminal whor have all the same number of parts.

95. Flowers are *irregular* when the parts of any one of the whorls are unequal in size, dissimilar in shape, or do not spread regularly round the axis at equal distances. It is however more especially irregularity of the corolla that is referred to in descriptions. A slight inequality in size or direction in the other whorls does not prevent the flower being classed as *regular*, if the corolla or perianth is conspicuous and regular.

§ 9. *The Calyx and Corolla, or Perianth.*

96. The **Calyx** (90) is usually green, and smaller than the corolla; sometimes very minute, rudimentary, or wanting, sometimes very indistinctly whorled, or not whorled at all, or in two whorls, or composed of a large number of sepals of which the outer ones pass gradually into bracts, and the inner ones into petals.

97. The **Corolla** (90) is usually coloured, and of a more delicate texture than the calyx, and, in popular language, is often more specially meant by the *flower*. Its petals are more rarely in two whorls, or indefinite in number, and the whorl more rarely broken than in the case of the calyx, at least when the plant is in a natural state. *Double flowers* are in most cases an accidental deformity or monster in which the ordinary number of petals is multiplied by the conversion of stamens, sepals, or even carpels into petals, by the division of ordinary petals or simply by the addition of supernumerary ones. Petals are also sometimes very small, rudimentary, or entirely deficient.

98. In very many cases, a so-called *simple perianth* (15) (of which the parts are usually called *leaves or segments*) is one in which the sepals and petals are similar in form and texture, and present apparently a single whorl. But if examined in the young bud, one half of the parts will generally be found to be placed outside the other half, and there will frequently be some slight difference in texture, size, and colour, indicating to the close observer the presence of both calyx and corolla. Hence much discrepancy in descriptive works. Where one botanist describes a simple perianth of six segments, another will speak of a double perianth of three sepals and three petals.

99. The following terms and prefixes, expressive of the modifications of form and arrangement of the corolla and its petals, are equally applicable to the calyx and its sepals, and to the simple perianth and its segments.

100. The Corolla is said to be *monopetalous* when the petals are united, either entirely or at the base only, into a cup, tube, or ring; *polypetalous* when they are all free from the base. These expressions, established by a long usage, are not strictly correct, for *monopetalous* (consisting of a single petal) should apply rather to a corolla really reduced to a single petal, which would then be on one side of the axis; and *polypetalous* is sometimes used more appropriately for a corolla with an indefinite number of petals. Some modern botanists have therefore proposed the term *gamopetalous* for the corolla with united petals, and *dialypetalous* for that with free petals; but the old established expressions are still the most generally used.

101. When the petals are partially united, the lower entire portion of the corolla is called the *tube* whatever be its shape, and the free portions of the petals are called the *teeth, lobes*, or *segments* (39), according as they are short or long in proportion to the whole length of the corolla. When the tube is excessively short, the petals appear at first sight free, but their slight union at the base must be carefully attended to, being of importance in classification.

102. The **Æstivation** of a corolla is the arrangement of the petals or of such portion of them as is free, in the unexpanded bud. It is

valvate, when they are strictly whorled in their whole length, their edges being placed against each other without overlapping. If the edges are much inflexed, the æstivation is at the same time *induplicate; involute*, if the margins are rolled inward; *reduplicate*, if the margins project outwards into salient angles; *revolute*, if the margins are rolled outwards; *plicate*, if the petals are folded in longitudinal plaits.

imbricate, when the whorl is more or less broken by some of the petals being outside the others, or by their overlapping each other at least at the top. Five-petaled imbricate corollas are quincuncially imbricate when one petal is outside, and an adjoining one wholly inside, the three others intermediate and overlapping on one side; bilabiate, when two adjoining ones are inside or outside the three others. Imbricate petals are described as *crumpled* (*corrugate*) when puckered irregularly in the bud.

twisted, contorted, or *convolute*, when each petal overlaps an adjoining one on one side, and is overlapped by the other adjoining one on the other side. Some botanists include the twisted æstivation in the general term *imbricate*; others carefully distinguish the one from the other.

103. In a few cases the overlapping is so slight that the three æstivations cannot easily be distinguished one from the other: in a few others the æstivation is variable, even in the same species, but, in general, it supplies a constant character in species, in genera, or even in Natural Orders.

104. In general shape the **Corolla** is

tubular, when the whole or the greater part of it is in the form of a tube or cylinder.

campanulate, when approaching in some measure the shape of a cup or bell.

urceolate, when the tube is swollen or nearly globular, contracted at the top, and slightly expanded again in a narrow rim.

rotate or *stellate*, when the petals or lobes are spread out horizontally from the base, or nearly so, like a wheel or star.

hypocrateriform or *salver-shaped*, when the lower part is cylindrical and the upper portion expanded horizontally. In this case the name of *tube* is restricted to the cylindrical part, and the horizontal portion is called the *limb*, whether it be divided to the base or not. The orifice of the tube is called its *mouth* or *throat*.

infundibuliform or *funnel-shaped*, when the tube is cylindrical at the base, but enlarged at the top into a more or less campanulate limb, of which the lobes often spread horizontally. In this case the campanulate part, up to the commencement of the lobes, is sometimes considered as a portion of the tube, sometimes as a portion of the limb, and by some botanists again described as independent of either, under the name of *throat* (*fauces*). Generally speaking, however, in campanulate, infundibuliform, or other corollas, where the lower entire part passes gradually into the upper divided and more

spreading part, the distinction between the *tube* and the *limb* is drawn either at the point where the lobes separate, or at the part where the corolla first expands, according to which is the most marked.

105 Irregular corollas have received various names according to the more familiar forms they have been compared to. Some of the most important are the

bilabiate, or *two-lipped* corolla, when, in a four-or-five-lobed corolla, the two or three upper lobes stand obviously apart, like an *upper lip*, from the two or three lower ones or *under lip*. In *Orchideæ* and some other families the name of lip, or *labellum*, is given to one of the divisions or lobes of the perianth.

personate, when two-lipped, and the orifice of the tube closed by a projection from the base of the upper or lower lip, called a *palate*.

ringent, when very widely two-lipped, and the orifice of the tube very open.

spurred, when the tube or the lower part of a petal has a conical hollow projection, compared to the spur of a cock; *saccate*, when the spur is short and round like a little bag; *gibbous*, when projecting at any part into a slight swelling; *foveolate*, when marked in any part with a slight glandular or thickened cavity.

resupinate or *reversed*, when a lip, spur, etc, which in allied species is usually lowest, lies uppermost, and *vice versâ*.

106. The above terms are mostly applied to the forms of monopetalous corollas, but several are also applicable to those of polypetalous ones. Terms descriptive of the special forms of corolla in certain Natural Orders, will be explained under those Orders respectively.

107. Most of the terms used for describing the forms of leaves (39, 45) are also applicable to those of individual petals, but the flat expanded portion of a petal, corresponding to the blade of the leaf, is called its *lamina*, and the stalk, corresponding to the petiole, its *claw* (*unguis*). The stalked petal is said to be *unguiculate*.

§ 10. *The Stamens.*

108. Although in a few cases the outer stamens may gradually pass into petals, yet, in general, **Stamens** are very different in shape and aspect from leaves, sepals or petals. It is only in a theoretical point of view (not the less important in the study of the physiological economy of the plant) that they can be called altered leaves.

109. This usual form is a stalk, called the *filament*, bearing at the top an *anther* divided into two pouches or *cells*. These anther-cells are filled with *pollen*, consisting of minute grains, usually forming a yellow dust, which, when the flower expands, is scattered from an opening in each cell. When the two cells are not closely contiguous, the portion of the anther that unites them is called the *connectivum*.

110. The filament is often wanting, and the anther sessile, yet still the stamen is perfect; but if the anther, which is the essential part of the stamens, is wanting, or does not contain pollen, the stamen is imperfect, and is then said to be *barren* or *sterile* (without pollen), *abortive*, or *rudimentary* (84), according to the degree to which the imperfection is carried. Imperfect stamens are often called *staminodia*.

111. In unsymmetrical flowers, the stamens of each whorl are sometimes reduced in number below that of the petals, even to a single one, and in several Natural Orders they are multiplied indefinitely.

112. The terms *monandrous* and *polyandrous* are restricted to flowers which have really but one stamen, or an indefinite number respectively. Where several stamens are united into one, the flower is said to be *synandrous*.

113. **Stamens** are

monadelphous, when united by their filaments into one cluster. This cluster either forms a tube round the pistil, or, if the pistil is wanting, occupies the centre of the flowers.

diadelphous, when so united into two clusters or *phalanges*. The term is more especially applied to certain *Leguminosæ*, in which nine stamens are united in a tube slit open on the upper side, and a tenth, placed in a slit, is free. In some other plants the stamens are equally distributed in the two clusters.

triadelphous, *pentadelphous*, *polyadelphous*, when so united into three, five, or many clusters or *phalanges*.

syngenesious, when united by their anthers in a ring round the pistil, the filaments usually remaining free.

didynamous, when (usually in a bilabiate flower) there are four stamens in two pairs, those of one pair longer than those of the other.

tetradynamous, when (in Cruciferæ) there are six, four of them longer than the two others.

exserted, when longer than the corolla, or even when longer than its tube, if the limb be very spreading.

114. An **Anther** (109) is

adnate, when continuous with the filament, the anther-cells appearing to lie their whole length along the upper part of the filament.

innate, when firmly attached by their base to the filament. This is an adnate anther when rather more distinct from the filament.

versatile, when attached by their back to the very point of the filament, so as to swing loosely.

115. Anther cells may be *parallel* or *diverging* at a less or greater angle; or *divaricate*, when placed end to end so as to form one straight line. The end of each anther-cell placed nearest to the other cell is generally called its *apex* or *summit*, and the other end its *base* (36); but some botanists reverse the sense of these terms.

116. Anthers have often, on their connectivum or cells, appendages termed *bristles* (setæ), *spurs*, *crests*, *points*, *glands*, etc., according to their appearance.

117. Anthers have occasionally only one cell: this may take place either by the disappearance of the partition between two closely contiguous cells, when these cells are said to be *confluent*; or by the abortion or total deficiency of one of the cells, when the anther is said to be *dimidiate*.

118. Anthers will open or *dehisce* to let out the pollen, like capsules, in *valves*, *pores*, or *slits*. Their dehiscence is *introrse*, when the opening faces the pistil; *extrorse*, when towards the circumference of the flower.

119. Pollen (109) is not always in the form of dust. It is sometimes collected in each cell into one or two little wax-like masses. Special terms used in describing these masses or other modifications of the pollen will be explained under the Orders where they occur.

§ 11. *The Pistil.*

120. The carpels (91) of the **Pistil**, although they may occasionally assume, rather more than stamens, the appearance and colour of leaves, are still more different in shape and structure. They are usually sessile; if stalked, their stalk is called a *podocarp*. This stalk, upon which each separate carpel is supported above the receptacle, must not be confounded with the *gynobasis* (143), upon which the whole pistil is sometimes raised.

121. Each carpel consists of three parts:

1 the **Ovary**, or enlarged base, which includes one or more cavities or *cells*, containing one or more small bodies called *ovules*. These are the earliest condition of the future seeds.

2 the **Style**, proceeding from the summit of the ovary, and supporting—

3 the **Stigma**, which is sometimes a point (*or punctiform* stigma) or small head (a *capitate* stigma) at the top of the style or ovary, sometimes a portion of its surface more or less lateral and variously shaped, distinguished by a looser texture, and covered with minute protuberances called *papillæ*.

122. The style is often wanting, and the stigma is then sessile on the ovary, but in the perfect pistil there is always at least one ovule in the ovary, and some portion of stigmatic surface. Without these the pistil is imperfect, and said to be *barren* (not setting seed), *abortive*, or *rudimentary* (84) according to the degree of imperfection.

123. The ovary being the essential part of the pistil, most of the terms relating to the number, arrangement, etc. of the carpels, apply specially to their ovaries. In some works each separate carpel is called a pistil, all those of a flower constituting together the *gynæcium*; but this term is in little use, and the word *pistil* is more generally applied in a collective sense. When the ovaries are at all united, they are commonly termed collectively a compound ovary.

124. The number of carpels or ovaries in a flower is frequently reduced below that of the parts of the other floral whorls, even in flowers otherwise symmetrical. In a very few genera, however, the ovaries are more numerous than the petals, or indefinite. They are in that case either arranged in a single whorl, or form a head or spike in the centre of the flower.

125. The terms *monogynous, digynous, polygynous*, etc. (with a pistil of one, two, or more parts), are vaguely used, applying sometimes to the whole pistil, sometimes to the ovaries alone, or to the styles or stigmas only. Where a more precise nomenclature is adopted, the flower is

monocarpellary, when the pistil consists of a single simple carpel.

bi-tri-, etc., to *poly carpellary*, when the pistil consists of two, three, or an indefinite number of carpels, whether separate or united.

syncarpous, when the carpels or their ovaries are more or less united into one compound ovary.

apocarpous, when the carpels or ovaries are all free and distinct.

126. A *compound* ovary is

unilocular or *one-celled*, when there are no partitions between the ovules, or when these partitions do not meet in the centre so as to divide the cavity into several cells.

plurilocular or *several-celled*, when completely divided into two or more cells by partitions called *dissepiments* (*septa*), usually vertical and radiating from the centre or axis of the ovary to its circumference.

bi, tri, etc., to *multi-loculur*, according to the number of these cells, two, three, etc., or many.

127. In general the number of cells or of dissepiments, complete or partial, or of rows of ovules, corresponds with that of the carpels, of which the pistil is composed. But sometimes each carpel is divided completely or partially into two cells, or has two rows of ovules, so that the number of carpels appears double what it really is. Sometimes again the carpels are so completely combined and reduced as to form a single cell, with a single ovule, although it really consists of several carpels. But in these cases the ovary is usually described as it appears, as well as such as it is theoretically supposed to be.

128 In apocarpous pistils the styles are usually free, each bearing its own stigma. Very rarely the greater part of the styles, or the stigmas alone, are united, whilst the ovaries remain distinct.

129. Syncarpous pistils are said to have

several styles, when the styles are free from the base.

one style, with several branches, when the styles are connected at the base, but separate below the point where the stigmas or stigmatic surfaces commence.

one simple style, with several stigmas, when united up to the point where the stigmas or stigmatic surfaces commence, and then separating.

one simple style, with a branched, lobed, toothed, notched, or entire stigma (as the case may be), when the stigmas also are more or less united. In many works, however, this precise nomenclature is not strictly adhered to, and considerable confusion is often the result.

130. In general the number of styles, or branches of the style or stigma, is the same as that of the carpels, but sometimes that number is doubled, especially in the stigmas, and sometimes the stigmas are dichotomously or pinnately branched, or *penicillate*, that is, divided into a tuft of hair-like branches. All these variations sometimes make it a difficult task to determine the number of carpels forming a compound ovary, but the point is of considerable importance in fixing the affinities of plants, and, by careful consideration, the real as well as the apparent number has now in most cases been agreed upon.

131. The *placenta* is the part of the inside of the ovary to which the ovules are attached, sometimes a mere point or line on the inner surface, often more or less thickened or raised. Placentation is therefore the indication of the part of the ovary to which the ovules are attached.

132. Placentas are

axile, when the ovules are attached to the axis or centre, that is in plurilocular ovaries, when they are attached to the inner angle of each cell; in unilocular simple ovaries, which have almost always an excentrical style or stigma, when the ovules are attached to the side of the ovary nearest to the style; in unilocular compound ovaries, when the ovules are attached to a central protuberance, column, or axis rising up from the base of the cavity. If this column does not reach the top of the cavity, the placenta is said to be *free* and *central*.

parietal, when the ovules are attached to the inner surface of the cavity of a one-celled compound ovary. Parietal placentas are usually slightly thickened or raised lines, sometimes broad surfaces nearly covering the inner surface of the cavity, sometimes projecting far into the cavity, and constituting partial dissepiments, or even meeting in the centre, but without cohering there In the latter case the distinction between the one-celled and the several-celled ovary sometimes almost disappears.

133. Each **Ovule** (121), when fully formed, usually consists of a central mass or *nucleus* enclosed in two bag-like *coats*, the outer one called *primine*, the inner one *secundine*. The *chalaza* is the point of the ovule at which the base of the nucleus is confluent with the coats. The *foramen* is a minute aperture in the coats over the *apex* of the nucleus.

134. **Ovules** are

orthotropous or *straight*, when the chalaza coincides with the base (36) of the ovule, and the foramen is at the opposite extremity, the axis of the ovule being straight.

campylotropous or *incurved*, when the chalara still coinciding with the base of the ovule, the axis of the ovule is curved, bringing the foramen down more or less towards that base.

anatropous or *inverted*, when the chalaza is at the apex of the ovule, and the foramen next to its base, the axis remaining straight. In this, one of the most frequent forms of the ovule, the chalaza is connected with the base by a cord, called the *rhaphe*, adhering to one side of the ovule, and becoming more or less incorporated with its coats, as the ovule enlarges into a seed.

amphitropous or *half-inverted*, when the ovule being as it were attached laterally, the chalaza and foramen at opposite ends of its straight or curved axis are about equally distant from the base or point of attachment.

§ 12. *The Receptacle and Relative Attachment of the Floral Whorls.*

135. The **Receptacle** or *torus* is the extremity of the peduncle (above the calyx), upon which the corolla, stamens, and ovary are inserted. It is sometimes little more than a mere point or minute hemisphere, but it is often also more or less elongated, thickened, or otherwise enlarged. It must not be confounded with the receptacle of inflorescence (74).

136. A *Disk* or *disc*, is a circular enlargement of the receptacle, usually in the form of a cup (*cupular*) of a flat disk or quoit, or of a cushion (*pulvinate*). It is either immediately at the base of the ovary within the stamens, or between the petals and stamens, or bears the petals or stamens or both on its margin, or is quite at the extremity of the receptacle, with the ovaries arranged in a ring round it or under it.

137. The disk may be *entire*, or *toothed* or *lobed*, or *divided* into a number of parts, usually equal to or twice that of the stamens or carpels. When the parts of the disk are quite separate and short, they are often called *glands*.

138. *Nectaries* are either the disk, or small deformed petals, or abortive stamens, or appendages at the base of petals, or stamens, or any small bodies within the flower which do not look like petals, stamens, or ovaries. They were formerly supposed to supply bees with their honey, and the term is frequently to be met with in the older Floras, but is now deservedly going out of use.

139. When the disk bears the petals and stamens, it is frequently adherent to, and apparently forms part of, the tube of the calyx, or it is adherent to, and apparently forms part of, the ovary, or of both calyx-tube and ovary. Hence the three following important distinctions in the relative insertion of the floral whorls.

140. *Petals*, or as it is frequently expressed, flowers, are

hypogynous (*i. e.* under the ovary), when they or the disk that bears them are entirely free both from the calyx and ovary. The ovary is then described as *free* or *superior*, the calyx as *free* or *inferior*, the petals as being *inserted on the receptacle*.

perigynous (*i e.* round the ovary), when the disk bearing the petals is quite free from the ovary, but is more or less combined with the base of the calyx tube. The ovary is then still described as *free* or *superior*, even though the combined disk and calyx-tube may form a deep cup with the ovary lying in the bottom; the calyx is said to be *free* or *inferior*, and the petals are described as *inserted on the calyx*.

epigynous (*i. e.* upon the ovary), when the disk bearing the petals is combined both with the base of the calyx-tube and the base outside of the ovary, either closing over the ovary so as only to leave a passage for the style, or leaving more or less of the top of the ovary free, but always adhering to it above the level of the insertion of the lowest ovule (except in a very few cases where the ovules are absolutely suspended from the top of the cell). In epigynous flowers the ovary is described as *adherent* or *inferior*, the calyx as *adherent* or *superior*, the petals as *inserted on* or *above the ovary*. In some works, however, most epigynous flowers are included in the perigynous ones, and a very different meaning is given to the term *epigynous* (144), and there are a few cases where no positive distinction can be drawn between the epigynous and perigynous flowers, or again between the perigynous and hypogynous flowers.

141. When there are no petals, it is the insertion of the stamens that determines the difference between the hypogynous, perigynous, and epigynous flowers.

142 When there are both petals and stamens

in hypogynous flowers, the petals and stamens are usually free from each other, but sometimes they are combined at the base. In that case, if the petals are distinct from each other, and the stamens are monadelphous, the petals are often said to be *inserted on* or *combined with the staminal tube*, if the corolla is gamopetalous and the stamens distinct from each other, the latter are said to be *inserted in the tube of the corolla*.

in perigynous flowers, the stamens are usually inserted immediately within the petals, or alternating with them on the edge of the disk, but occasionally much lower down within the disk, or even on the unenlarged part of the receptacle.

in epigynous flowers, when the petals are distinct, the stamens are usually inserted as in perigynous flowers; when the corolla is gamopetalous, the stamens are either free and epigynous, or combined at the base with (inserted in) the tube of the corolla.

143. When the receptacle is distinctly elongated below the ovary, it is often called a *gynobasis*, *gynophore*, or *stalk of the ovary*. If the elongation takes place below the stamens or below the petals, these stamens or petals are then said to be *inserted on the stalk of the ovary*, and are occasionally, but falsely, described as *epigynous*. Really epigynous stamens (*i.e.* when the filaments are combined with the ovary) are very rare, unless the rest of the flower is epigynous.

144. An *epigynous disk* is a name given either to the thickened summit of the ovary in epigynous flowers, or very rarely to a real disk or enlargement of the receptacle closing over the ovary.

145. In the relative position of any two or more parts of the flower, whether in the same or in different whorls, they are

connivent, when nearer together at the summit than at the base.

divergent, when further apart at the summit than at the base.

coherent, when united together, but so slightly that they can be separated with little or no laceration; and one of the two coherent parts, (usually the smallest or least important) is said to be *adherent* to the other. Grammatically speaking, these two terms convey nearly the same meaning but require a different form of phrase, practically however it has been found more convenient to restrict *cohesion* to the union of parts of the same whorl, and *adhesion* to the union of parts of different whorls.

connate, when so closely united that they cannot be separated without laceration. Each of the two connate parts, and especially that one which is considered the smaller or of the least importance, is said to be *adnate* to the other.

free, when neither coherent nor connate.

distinct is also used in the same sense, but is also applied to parts distinctly visible or distinctly limited.

§ 13. . *The Fruit.*

146. The **Fruit** (15) consists of the ovary and whatever other parts of the flower are *persistent* (*i. e.* persist at the time the seed is ripe), usually enlarged, and more or less altered in shape and consistence. It encloses or covers the seed or seeds till the period of maturity, when it either opens for the seed to escape, or falls to the ground with the seed. When stalked, its stalk has been termed a *carpophore*.

147. Fruits are, in elementary works, said to be *simple* when the result of a single flower, *compound* when they proceed from several flowers closely packed or combined in a head. But as a fruit resulting from a single flower, with several distinct carpels, is compound in the sense in which that term is applied to the ovary, the terms *single* and *aggregate*, proposed for the fruit resulting from one or several flowers, may be more appropriately adopted In descriptive botany a fruit is always supposed to result from a single flower unless the contrary be stated. It may, like the pistil, be syncarpous or apocarpous (125); and as in many cases carpels united in the flower may become separate as they ripen, an apocarpous fruit may result from a syncarpous pistil.

148. The involucre or bracts often persist and form part of aggregate fruits, but very seldom so in single ones.

149. The receptacle becomes occasionally enlarged and succulent, if when ripe it falls off with the fruit, it is considered as forming part of it.

150. The adherent part of the calyx of epigynous flowers always persists and forms part of the fruit; the free part of the calyx of epigynous flowers or the calyx of perigynous flowers, either persists entirely at the top of or round the fruit, or the lobes alone fall off, or the lobes fall off with whatever part of the calyx is above the insertion of the petals, or the whole of what is free from the ovary falls off, including the disk bearing the petals. The calyx of hypogynous flowers usually falls off entirely or persists entirely. In general a calyx is called deciduous if any part falls off. When it persists it is either enlarged round or under the fruit, or it withers and dries up.

151. The corolla usually falls off entirely; when it persists it is usually withered and dry (*marcescent*), or very seldom enlarges round the fruit.

152. The stamens either fall off, or more or less of their filaments persist, usually withered and dry.

153. The style sometimes falls off or dries up and disappears; sometimes persists, forming a point to the fruit, or becomes enlarged into a wing or other appendage to the fruit.

154. The *Pericarp* is the portion of the fruit formed of the ovary and whatever adheres to it exclusive of and outside of the seed or seeds, exclusive also of the persistent receptacle, or of whatever portion of the calyx persists round the ovary without adhering to it.

155. Fruits have often external appendages called *wings* (alæ), *beaks*, *crests*, *awns*, etc., according to their appearance. They are either formed by persistent parts of the flower more or less altered, or grow out of the ovary or the persistent part of the calyx. If the appendage be a ring of hairs or scales round the top of the fruit, is is called a *pappus*.

156. Fruits are generally divided into *succulent*, (including *fleshy*, *pulpy* and *juicy* fruits) and *dry*. They are *dehiscent* when they open at maturity to let out the seeds, *indehiscent* when they do not open spontaneously but fall off with the seeds. Succulent fruits are usually indehiscent.

157. The principal kinds of succulent fruits are

the *Berry*, in which the whole substance of the pericarp is fleshy or pulpy, with the exception of the outer skin or rind, called the *Epicarp*. The seeds themselves are usually immersed in the pulp; but in some berries, the seeds are separated from the pulp by the walls of the cavity or cells of the ovary, which form as it were a thin inner skin or rind, called the *Endocarp*.

the *Drupe*, in which the pericarp, when ripe, consists of two distinct portions, an outer succulent one called the *Sarcocarp*, or *Mesocarp* (covered like the berry by a skin or epicarp), and an inner dry endocarp called the *Putamen*, which is either *cartilaginous* (of the consistence of parchment) or hard and woody. In the latter case it is commonly a *stone*, and the drupe a *stone-fruit*. When the putamen consists of several distinct stones or nuts, each enclosing a seed, they are called *pyrenes*, or sometimes *kernels*.

158. The principal kinds of dry fruits are

the *Capsule* or *Pod*,* which is dehiscent. When ripe the pericarp usually splits longitudinally into as many or twice as many pieces, called valves, as it contains cells or placentas. If these valves separate at the line of junction of the carpels, that is, along the line of the placentas or dissepiments, either splitting them or leaving them attached to the axis, the dehiscence is termed *septicidal*; if the valves separate between the placentas or dissepiment, the dehiscence is *loculicidal*, and the valves either bear the placentas or dissepiments along their middle line, or leave them attached to the axis. Sometimes also the capsule discharges its seeds by *slits*, *chinks*, or *pores*, more or less regularly arranged, or bursts irregularly, or separates into two parts by a horizontal line; in the latter case it is said to be *circumscissile*.

the *Nut* or *Achene*, which is indehiscent and contains but a single seed. When the pericarp is thin in proportion to the seed it encloses, the whole fruit (or each of its lobes) has the appearance of a single seed, and is so called in popular language. If the pericarp is thin and rather loose, it is often called a *Utricle*. A *Samara* is a nut with a wing at its upper end.

159. Where the carpels of the ovary are distinct (125) they may severally become as many distinct berries, drupes, capsules, or achenes. Separate carpels are usually more or less compressed laterally, with more or less prominent inner and outer edges, called *sutures*, and, if dehiscent, the carpel usually opens at these sutures. A *Follicle* is a carpel opening at the inner suture only. In some cases where the carpels are united in the ovary they will separate when ripe; they are then called *Cocci* if one-seeded.

160. The peculiar fruits of some of the large Orders have received special names, which will be explained under each Order. Such are the *siliqua* and *silicule* of Cruciferæ, the *legume* of Leguminosæ, the *pome* of *Pyrus* and its allies, the *pepo* of Cucurbitaceæ, the *cone* of Coniferæ, the *grain* or *Caryopsis* of Gramineæ, etc.

§ 14. *The Seed.*

161. The **Seed** is enclosed in the pericarp in the great majority of flowering plants, called therefore *Angiosperms*, or *angiospermous plants*. In *Coniferæ* and a very few allied genera, called *Gymnosperms*, or *gymnospermous plants*, the seed is naked, without any real pericarp. These truly gymnospermous plants must not be confounded with *Labiatæ*, *Borragineæ*, etc., which have also been falsely called gymnospermous, their small nuts having the appearance of seeds (158).

162. The seed when ripe contains an *embryo* or young plant, either filling or nearly filling the cavity, but not attached to the outer skin or the seed, or more or less immersed in a mealy, oily, fleshy, or horn-like substance, called the *albumen*, or *perisperm*. The presence or absence of this albumen, that is, the distinction between *albuminous* and *exalbuminous* seeds, is one of great importance. The embryo or albumen can often only be found or distinguished when the seed is quite ripe, or sometimes only when it begins to germinate.

163. The shell of the seed consists usually of two separable *coats*. The outer coat, called the *testa*, is usually the principal one, and in most cases the only one attended to in descriptions. It may be hard and *crustaceous*, woody or bony, or thin and *membranous* (skin-like), dry, or rarely succulent. It is sometimes expanded into *wings*, or bears a tuft of hair, cotton, or wool, called a *coma*. The inner coat is called the *tegmen*.

164. The *funicle* is the stalk by which the seed is attached to the placenta. It is occasionally enlarged into a membranous, pulpy, or fleshy appendage, sometimes spreading over a considerable part of the seed, or nearly enclosing it, called an *aril*. A *strophiole* or *caruncle* is a similar appendage proceeding from the testa by the side of or near the funicle.

165. The *hilum* is the scar left on the seed where it separates from the funicle. The *micropyle* is a mark indicating the position of the foramen of the ovule (133).

166. The **Embryo** (162) consists of the *Radicle* or base of the future root, one or two *Cotyledons* or future seed leaves, and the *Plumule* or future bud within the base of the cotyledons. In some seeds, especially where there is no albumen, these several parts are very conspicuous, in others they are very difficult to distinguish until the seed begins to germinate. Their observation, however, is of the greatest importance, for it is chiefly upon the distinction between the embryo with one or with two cotyledons that are founded the two great classes of phænogamous plants, *Monocotyledons* and *Dicotyledons*. Cotyledons are said to be *conduplicate* when folded once length-wise; *contortuplicate* when variously folded or twisted; *conferruminate* when so united that no line of separation can be traced.

* In English descriptions, *pod* is more frequently used when it is long and narrow; *capsule*, or sometimes *pouch*, when it is short and thick or broad.

167. Although the embryo lies loose (unattached) within the seed, it is generally in some determinate position with respect to the seed or to the whole fruit. This position is described by stating the direction of the radicle next to or more or less remote from the *hilum*, or it is said to be *superior* if pointing towards the summit of the *fruit*, *inferior* if pointing towards the base of the *fruit*.

§ 15. *Accessory Organs.*

168. Under this name are included, in many elementary works, various external parts of plants which do not appear to act any essential part either in the vegetation or reproduction of the plant. They may be classed under four heads: *Tendrils* and *Hooks*, *Thorns* and *Prickles*, *Hairs* and *Glands*.

169. **Tendrils** (*cirrhi*) are usually abortive petioles, or abortive peduncles, or sometimes abortive ends of branches. They are simple or more or less branched, flexible, and coil more or less firmly round any objects within their reach, in order to support the plant to which they belong. *Hookes* are similar holdfasts, but of a firmer consistence, not branched, and less coiled.

170. **Thorns** and **Prickles** have been fancifully called the weapons of plants. A *Thorn* or *Spine* is the strongly pointed extremity of a branch, or abortive petiole, or abortive peduncle. A *Prickle* is a sharply pointed excrescence from the epidermis, and is usually produced on a branch on the petiole or veins of a leaf, or on a peduncle, or even on the calyx or corolla. When the teeth of a leaf or the stipules are pungent, they are also called *prickles*, not *thorns*. A plant is *spinous* if it has thorns, *aculeate* if it has prickles.

171. **Hairs**, in the general sense, or the *indumentum* (or clothing) of a plant, include all those productions of the epidermis which have, by a more or less appropriate comparison, been termed *bristles*, *hairs*, *down*, *cotton*, or *wool*.

172. Hairs are often branched. They are said to be *attached by the centre*, if parted from the base, and the forks spread along the surface in opposite directions; *plumose*, if the branches are arranged along a common axis, as in a feather; *stellate*, if several branches radiate horizontally. These stellate hairs have sometimes their rays connected together at the base, forming little flat circular disks attached by the centre, and are then called *scales* and the surface is said to be *scaly* or *lepidote*.

173. The *Epidermis*, or outer skin, of an organ, as to its surface and indumentum, is

smooth, when without any protuberance whatever.

glabrous, when without hairs of any kind.

glabrescent glabrate, becoming glabrous.

striate, when marked with parallel longitudinal lines, either slightly raised or merely discoloured.

furrowed (*sulcate*) or *ribbed* (*costate*) when the parallel lines are more distinctly raised.

rugose, when wrinkled or marked with irregular raised or depressed lines.

umbilicate, when marked with a small round depression.

umbonate, when bearing a small boss like that of a shield.

viscous, *viscid*, or *glutinous*, when covered with a sticky or clammy exudation

scabrous when rough to the touch.

tuberculate or *warted*, when covered with small, obtuse, wart-like protuberances.

muricate, when the protuberances are more raised and pointed but yet short and hard.

echinate, when the protuberances are longer and sharper, almost prickly.

setose or *bristly*, when bearing very stiff erect straight hairs.

glandular-setose, when the setæ or bristles terminate in a minute resinous head or drop. In some works, especially in the case of Roses and *Rubus*, the meaning of *setæ* has been restricted to such as are glandular.

glochidiate, when the setæ are hooked at the top.

pilose, when the surface is thinly sprinkled with rather long simple hairs.

hispid, when more thickly covered with rather stiff hairs.

hirsute, when the hairs are dense and not so stiff.

downy or *pubescent*, when the hairs are short and soft; *puberulent*, when slightly pubescent.

strigose, when the hairs are rather short and stiff, and lie close along the surface all in the same direction; *strigillose*, when slightly strigose.

tomentose or *cottony*, when the hairs are very short and soft, rather dense and more or less intricate, and usually white or whitish.

woolly (*lanate*), when the hairs are long and loosely intricate, like wool. The wool or tomentum is said to be *floccose* when closely intricate and readily detached, like fleece.

mealy (*farinose*), when the hairs are excessively short, intricate and white, and come off readily, having the appearance of meal or dust.

canescent or *hoary*, when the hairs are so short as not readily to be distinguished by the naked eye, and yet give a general whitish hue to the epidermis.

glaucous, when of a pale bluish-green, often covered with a fine bloom.

glaucescent, *subglaucous* or becoming glaucous.

174. The meanings here attached to the above terms are such as appear to have been most generally adopted, but there is much vagueness in the use practically made of many of them by different botanists. This is especially the case with the terms *pilose*, *hispid*, *hirsute*, *pubescent*, and *tomentose*.

175. The name of **Glands** is given to several different productions, and principally to the four following:—

1—Small wart-like or shield-like bodies, either sessile or sometimes stalked, of a fungous or somewhat fleshy consistence, occasionally secreting a small quantity of oily or resinous matter, but more frequently dry. They are generally few in number, often definite in their position and form, and occur chiefly on the petiole or principal veins of leaves, on the branches of inflorescences, or on the stalks or principal veins of bracts, sepals or petals.

2—Minute raised dots, usually black, red, or dark-coloured, of a resinous or oily nature, always superficial, and apparently exudations from the epidermis. They are often numerous on leaves, bracts, sepals, and green branches, and occur even on petals and stamens, more rarely on pistils. When raised upon slender stalks they are called *pedicellate* (or *stipitate*) *glands*, or *glandular hairs*, according to the thickness of the stalk.

3—Small, globular, oblong or even linear vesicles, filled with oil, imbedded in the substance itself of leaves, bracts, floral organs, or fruits. They are often very numerous, like transparent dots, sometimes few and determinate in form and position. In the pericarp of *Umbelliferæ* they are remarkably regular and conspicuous, and take the name of *vittæ*.

1 *Lobes* of the disk (137), or other small fleshy excrescences within the flower, whether from the receptacle, calyx, corolla, stamens, or pistil.

Chap II. Classification, or Systematic Botany.

176. It has already been observed (3) that descriptions of plants should, as nearly as possible, be arranged under natural divisions, so as to facilitate the comparison of each plant with those most nearly allied to it. The descriptions of plants here alluded to are descriptions of *species*; the natural divisions of the Flora refer to natural *groups of species*.

177. A **Species** comprises all the individual plants which resemble each other sufficiently to make us conclude that they are all, or *may have been* all, descended from a common parent. These individuals may often differ from each other in many striking particulars, such as the colour of the flower, size of the leaf, etc., but these particulars are such as experience teaches us are liable to vary in the seedlings raised from one individual.

178. When a large number of the individuals of a species differ from the others in any striking particular they constitute a **Variety**. If the variety generally comes true from seed, it is often called a *Race*.

179. A *Variety* can only be propagated with certainty by grafts, cuttings, bulbs, tubers, or any other method which produces a new plant by the development of one or more buds taken from the old one. A *Race* may with care be propagated by seed, although seedlings will always be liable, under certain circumstances, to lose those particulars which distinguish it from the rest of the species. A real *Species* will always come true from seed.

180. The known species of plants (now near 100,000) are far too numerous for the human mind to study without classification, or even to give distinct single names to. To facilitate these objects, an admirable system, invented by Linnæus, has been universally adopted, viz. one common substantive name is given to a number of species which resemble each other more than they do any other species; the species so collected under one name are collectively called a **Genus**, the common name being the *generic* name. Each species is then distinguished from the others of the same genus by the addition of an adjective epithet or *specific name*. Every species has thus a botanical name of two words. In Latin, the language usually used for the purpose, the first word is a substantive and designates the genus; the second, an adjective, indicates the species.

181. The genera thus formed being still too numerous (above 6,000) for study without further arrangement, they have been classed upon the same principles, viz. genera which resemble each other more than they do any other genera, have been collected together into groups of a higher degree called **Families** or **Natural Orders**, to each of which a common name has been given. This name is in Latin an adjective plural, usually taken from the name of some one *typical* genus, generally the best known, the first discovered, or the most marked (e. g. *Ranunculaceæ* from *Ranunculus*). This is however for the purpose of study and comparison. To speak of a species, to refer to it and identify it, all that is necessary is to give the generic and specific names.

182. Natural Orders themselves (of which we reckon near 200) are often in the same manner collected into **Classes**; and where Orders contain a large number of genera, or genera a large number of species, they require further classification. The genera of an Order are then collected into minor groups called *Tribes*, the species of a genus into *Sections*, and in a few cases this intermediate classification is carried still further. The names of these several groups the most generally adopted are as follows, beginning with the most comprehensive or highest:—

Classes.	Genera.
Subclasses or *Alliances*.	*Subgenera*.
Natural Orders or Families.	*Sections*.
Suborders.	*Subsections*.
Tribes.	Species.
Subtribes.	Varieties.
Divisions.	
Subdivisions.	

183. The characters (3) by which a species is distinguished from all other species of the same genus are collectively called the *specific* character of the plant: those by which its genus is distinguished from other genera of the Order, or its Order from other Orders, are respectively called the *generic* or *ordinal* character, as the case may be. The *habit* of a plant, of a species, a genus, etc., consists of such general characters as strike the eye at first sight, such as size, colour, ramification, arrangement of the leaves, inflorescence, etc., and are chiefly derived from the organs of vegetation.

184. Classes, Orders, Genera, and their several subdivisons, are called *natural* when, in forming them, all resemblances and differences are taken into account, valuing them according to their evident or presumed importance; *artificial*, when resemblances and differences in some one or very few particulars only are taken into account independently of all others.

185. The number of species included in a genus, or the number of genera in an Order, is very variable. Sometimes two or three or even a single species may be so different from all others as to constitute the entire genus; in others, several hundred species may resemble each other so much as to be all included in one genus; and there is the same discrepancy in the number of genera to a Family. There is moreover, unfortunately, in a number of instances, great difference of opinion as to whether certain plants differing from each other in certain particulars are varieties of one species or belong to distinct species; and again, whether two or more groups of species should constitute as many sections of one genus, or distinct genera, or tribes of one Order, or even distinct Natural Orders. In the former case, as a species is supposed to have a real existence in nature, the question is susceptible of argument, and sometimes of absolute proof. But the place a group should occupy in the scale of degree is very arbitrary, being often a mere question of convenience. The more subdivisions upon correct principles are multiplied, the more they facilitate the study of plants, provided always the main resting-points for constant use, the Order and the Genus, are comprehensive and distinct. But if every group into which a genus can be divided be erected into a distinct genus, with a substantive name to be remembered whenever a species is spoken of, all the advantages derived from the beautiful simplicity of the Linnæan nomenclature are gone.

Chap. III. Vegetable Anatomy and Physiology.

§ 1. *Structure and Growth of the Elementary Tissues.*

186. If a very thin slice of any part of a plant be placed under a microscope of high magnifying power, it will be found to be made up of variously shaped and arranged ultimate parts, forming a sort of honeycombed structure. These ultimate parts are called *cells*, and form by their combination the *elementary tissues* of which the entire plant is composed.

187. A cell in its simplest state is a closed membranous sac, formed of a substance permeable by fluids, though usually destitute of visible pores. Each cell is a distinct individual, separately formed and separately acting, though cohering with the cells with which it is in contact, and partaking of the common life and action of the tissue of which it forms a part. The membranes separating or enclosing the cells are also called their *walls*.

188. Botanists usually distinguish the following tissues:—

(1) *Cellular tissue*, or *parenchyma*, consists usually of thin-walled cells, more or less round in form, or with their length not much exceeding

their breadth, and not tapering at the ends. All the soft parts of the leaves, the pith of stems, the pulp of fruits, and all young growing parts, are formed of it. It is the first tissue produced, and continues to be formed while growth continues, and when it ceases to be active the plant dies.

(2) *Woody tissue*, or *prosenchyma*, differs in having its cells considerably longer than broad, usually tapering at each end into points and overlapping each other. The cells are commonly thick-walled; the tissue is firm, tenacious, and elastic, and constitutes the principal part of wood, of the inner bark, and of the nerves and veins of leaves, forming, in short, the framework of the plant

(3) *Vascular tissue*, or the *vessels* or *ducts* of plants, so called from the mistaken notion that their functions are analogous to those of the vessels (veins and arteries) of animals. A *vessel* in plants consists of a vertical row of cells, which have their transverse partition-walls obliterated, so as to form a continuous tube. All phænogamous plants, as well as ferns and a few other cryptogamous plants, have vessels, and are therefore called *vascular plants*; so the majority of cryptogams having only cellular tissue are termed *cellular plants*. Vessels have their sides very variously marked; some, called *spiral vessels*, have a spiral fibre coiled up their inside, which unrolls when the vessel is broken: others are marked with longitudinal slits, cross bars, minute dots or pits, or with transverse rings. The size of vessels is also very variable in different plants; in some they are of considerable size and visible to the naked eye in cross sections of the stem, in others they are almost absent or can only be traced under a strong magnifier.

189. Various modifications of the above tissues are distinguished by vegetable anatomists under names which need not be enumerated here as not being in general practical use. *Air-vessels*, *cysts*, *turpentine vessels*, *oil reservoirs*, etc., are either cavities left between the cells, or large cells filled with peculiar secretions.

190. When tissues are once formed, they increase, not by the general enlargement of the whole of the cells already formed, but by *cell-division*, that is, by the division of young and vitally active cells, and the enlargement of their portions. In the formation of the embryo, the first cell of the new plant is formed, not by division, but around a segregate portion of the contents of a previously existing cell, the embryo sac. This is termed *free cell-formation*, in contradistinction to cell-division.

191. A young and vitally active cell consists of the *outer wall*, formed of a more or less transparent substance called *cellulose*, permeable by fluids, and of ternary chemical composition (carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen); and of the *cell contents*, usually viscid or mucilaginous, consisting of *protoplasm*, a substance of quaternary chemical composition (carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen), which fills an important part in cell-division and growth. Within the cell (either in the centre or excentrical) is usually a minute, soft, subgelatinous body called the *nucleus*, whose functions appear to be intimately connected with the first formation of the new cell. As this cell increases in size and its walls in thickness, the protoplasm and watery cell sap become absorbed or dried up, the firm cellulose wall alone remaining as a permanent fabric, either empty or filled with various organized substances produced or secreted within it.

192. The principal organized contents of cells are

sap, the first product of the digestion of the food of plants; it contains the elements of vegetable growth in a dissolved condition.

sugar, of which there are two kinds, called *cane-sugar* and *grape-sugar*. It usually exists dissolved in the sap. It is found abundantly in growing parts, in fruits, and in germinating seeds.

dextrine, or vegetable mucilage, a gummy substance, between mucilage and starch.

starch or *fecula*, one of the most universal and conspicuous of cell-contents, and often so abundant in farinaceous roots and seeds as to fill the cell-cavity. It consists of minute grains called *starch-granules*, which vary in size, and are marked with more or less conspicuous concentric lines. The chemical constitution of starch is the same as that of cellulose; it is unaffected by cold water, but forms a jelly with boiling water, and turns blue when tested by iodine.

chlorophyll, very minute granules, containing nitrogen, and coloured green under the action of sunlight. These granules are most abundant in the layers of cells immediately below the surface or epidermis of leaves and young bark. The green colouring matter is soluble in alcohol, and may thus be removed from the granules.

chromule, a name given to a similar colouring-matter when green.

wax, *oils*, *camphor*, and *resinous* matter, are common in cells or in cavities in the tissues between the cells, also various mineral substances, either in an amorphous state or as microscopic crystals, when they are called *Raphides*.

§ 2. *Arrangement of the Elementary Tissues, or Structure of the Organs of Plants.*

193. Leaves, young stems, and branches, and most parts of phænogamous plants, during the first year of their existence, consist anatomically of

1, a *cellular system*, or continuous mass of cellular tissue, which is developed both vertically as the stem or other parts increase in length, and horizontally or laterally as they increase in thickness or breadth. It surrounds or is intermixed with the fibro-vascular system, or it may exist alone in some parts of phænogamous plants, as well as in cryptogamous ones.

2, a *fibro-vascular system*, or continuous mass of woody and vascular tissue, which is gradually introduced vertically into, and serves to bind together the cellular system. It is continued from the stem into the petioles and veins of the leaves, and into the pedicels and parts of the flowers, and is never wholly wanting in any phænogamous plant.

3, an *epidermis*, or outer skin, formed of one or more layers of flattened (horizontal), firmly coherent, and usually empty cells, with either thin and transparent or thick and opaque walls It covers almost all parts of plants exposed to the outward air, protecting their tissues from its immediate action, but is wanting in those parts of aquatic plants which are constantly submerged.

194. The epidermis is frequently pierced by minute spaces between the cells, called *Stomates*. They are oval or mouth shaped, bordered by *lips*, formed of two or more elastic cells so disposed as to cause the stomate to open in a moist, and to close up in a dry state of the atmosphere. They communicate with intercellular cavities, and are obviously designed to regulate evaporation and respiration. They are chiefly found upon leaves, especially on the under surface.

195. When a phænogamous plant has outlived the first season of its growth, the anatomical structure of its stem or other perennial parts becomes more complicated and very different in the two great classes of phænogamous plants called *Exogens* and *Endogens*, which correspond with very few exceptions to the two classes Dicotyledons and Monocotyledons (167), founded on the structure of the embryo. In Exogens (Dicotyledons) the woody system is placed in concentric layers between a central *pith* (193, 1), and an external separable *bark* (193, 5). In Endogens (Monocotyledons) the woody system is in separate small bundles or fibres running through the cellular system without apparent order, and there is usually no distinct central pith, nor outer separable bark.

196. The anatomical structure is also somewhat different in the different organs of plants. In the **Root**, although it is constructed generally on the same plan as the stem, yet the regular organization, and the difference between Exogens and Endogens, is often disguised or obliterated by irregularities of growth, or by the production of large quantities of cellular tissue filled with starch or other substances (192). There is seldom, if ever, any distinct pith, the concentric circles of fibro-vascular tissue in Exogens are often very indistinct or have no relation to seasons of growth, and the epidermis has no stomates.

197. In the **Stem** or branches, during the first year or season of their growth, the difference between Exogens and Endogens is not always very conspicuous In both there is a tendency to a circular arrangement of the fibro-vascular system, leaving the centre either vacant or filled with cellular tissue (pith) only, and a more or less distinct outer rind is observable even in several Endogens More frequently, however, the distinction is already very apparent the first season, especially towards its close. The fibro-vascular bundles in Endogens usually anastomose but little, passing continuously into the branches and leaves. In Exogens the circle of fibro vascular bundles forms a more continuous cylinder of network emitting lateral offsets into the branches and leaves.

198. The Exogenous stem, after the first year of its growth, consists of

1, the *pith*, a cylinder of cellular tissue, occupying the centre or longitudinal axis of the stem. It is active only in young stems or branches, becomes dried up and compressed as the wood hardens, and often finally disappears, or is scarcely distinguishable in old trees.

2, the *medullary sheath*, which surrounds and encases the pith. It abounds in spiral vessels (188, 3), and is in direct connection when young, with the leaf-buds and branches, with the petioles and veins of leaves, and other ramifications of the system. Like the pith, it gradually disappears in old wood.

3, the *wood*, which lies immediately outside the medullary sheath. It is formed of woody tissue (188, 2), through which, in most cases, vessels (188, 3) variously disposed are interspersed. It is arranged in annual concentric circles (211), which usually remain active during several years, but in older stems the central and older layers become hard, dense, comparatively inactive, and usually deeper coloured, forming what is called *heart-wood* or *duramen*, the outer, younger, and usually paler-coloured living layers constituting the *sapwood* or *alburnum*.

4, the *medullary rays*, which form vertical plates, originating in the pith, and, radiating from thence, traverse the wood and terminate in the bark. They are formed of cellular tissue, keeping up a communication between the living portion of the centre of the stem and its outer surface. As the heart-wood is formed, the inner portion of the medullary rays ceases to be active, but they usually may still be seen in old wood, forming what carpenters call the *silver grain*

5, the *bark*, which lies outside the wood, within the epidermis. It is, like the wood, arranged in annual concentric circles (211), of which the outer older ones become dry and hard, forming the *corky layer* or *outer bark*, which, as it is distended by the thickening of the stem, either cracks or is cast off with the epidermis, which is no longer distinguishable. Within the corky layer is the *cellular*, or *green*, or *middle bark*, formed of loose thin walled pulpy cells containing chlorophyll (192), and which is usually the layer of the preceding season. The innermost and youngest circle, next the young wood, is the *liber* or *inner bark*, formed of long tough woody tissue called *bast-cells*.

199. The Endogenous stem, as it grows old, is not marked by the concentric circles of Exogens. The wood consists of a *matrix* of cellular tissue irregularly traversed by vertical cords or bundles of woody and vascular tissue, which are in connection with the leaves. These vascular bundles change in structure and direction as they pass down the stem, losing their vessels, they retain only their bast or long wood cells, usually curving outwards towards the rind. The old wood becomes more compact and harder towards the circumference than in the centre. The epidermis or rind either hardens so as to prevent any increase of diameter in the stem, or it distends, without increasing in thickness or splitting or casting off any outer layers.

200. In the **Leaf**, the structure of the petioles and principal ribs or veins is the same as that of the young branches of which they are ramifications In the expanded portion of the leaf the fibro vascular system becomes usually very much ramified, forming the smaller veins. These are surrounded and the interstices filled up by a copious and very active cellular tissue. The majority of leaves are horizontal, having a differently constructed upper and under surface. The cellular stratum forming the upper surface consists of closely set cells, placed vertically, with their smallest ends next the surface, and with few or no stomates in the epidermis. In the stratum forming the under surface, the cells are more or less horizontal, more loosely placed, and have generally empty spaces between them, with stomates in the epidermis communicating with these intercellular spaces. In vertical leaves (as in a large number of Australian plants) the two surfaces are nearly similar in structure

201. When leaves are reduced to scales, acting only as protectors of young buds, or without taking any apparent part in the economy of vegetable life, their structure, though still on the same plan, is more simple ; their fibro-vascular system is less ramified, their cellular system more uniform, and there are few or no stomates.

202. Bracts and floral envelopes, when green and much developed, resemble leaves in their anatomical structure, but in proportion as they are reduced to scales or transformed into petals, they lose their stomates, and their systems, both fibro-vascular and the cellular, become more simple and uniform or more slender and delicate.

203. In the stamens and pistils the structure is still nearly the same The fibro-vascular system surrounded by and intermixed with the cellular tissue, is usually simple in the filaments and style, more or less ramified in the flattened or expanded parts, such as the anther cases, the walls of the ovary, or carpellary leaves, etc The pollen consists of granular cells variously shaped, marked, or combined, peculiar forms being constant in the same species, or often in large genera, or even Orders. The stigmatic portion of the pistil is a mass of loosely cellular substance, destitute of epidermis, and usually is in communication with the ovary by the channel running down the centre of the style.

204. Tubers, fleshy thickenings of the stem or other parts of the plant, succulent leaves or branches, the fleshy, woody, or bony parts of fruits, the albumen, and the thick fleshy parts of embryos, consist chiefly of largely developed cellular tissue, replete with starch or other substances (192), deposited apparently in most cases for the eventual future use of the plant or its parts when recalled into activity at the approach of a new season.

205. Hairs (171) are usually expansions or processes of the epidermis, and consist of one or more cells placed end to end. When thick or hardened into prickles, they still consist usually of cellular tissue only Thorns (170) contain more or less of a fibro-vascular system, according to their degree of development.

206. Glands, in the primary sense of the word (175, I), consist usually of a rather loose cellular tissue without epidermis, and often replete with resinous or other substances.

§ 3. *Growth of the Organs.*

207. Roots grow in length constantly and regularly at the extremities only of their fibres, in proportion as they find the requisite nutriment. They form no buds containing the germ of future branches, but their fibres proceed irregularly from any part of their surface without previous indication, and when their growth has been stopped for a time, either wholly by the close of the season, or partially by a deficiency of nutriment at any particular spot, it will on the return of favourable circumstances, be resumed at the same point, if the growing extremities be uninjured If during the dead season, or at any other time, the growing extremity is cut off, dried up, or otherwise injured, or stopped by a rock or other obstacle opposing its progress, lateral fibres will be formed on the still living portion ; thus enabling the root as a whole to diverge in any direction, and travel far and wide when lured on by appropriate nutriment.

208 This growth is not however by the successive formation of terminal cells attaining at once their full size The cells first formed on a fibre commencing or renewing its growth, will often dry up and form a kind of terminal cap, which is pushed on as cells are formed immediately under it ; and the new cells, constituting a greater or lesser portion of the ends of the fibres, remain some time in a growing state before they have attained their full size.

209. The roots of Exogens, when perennial, increase in thickness like stems by the addition of concentric layers, but these are usually much less distinctly marked; and in a large number of perennial Exogens and most Endogens the roots are annual, perishing at the close of the season, fresh adventitious roots springing from the stock when vegetation commences the following season.

210. The stem, including its branches and appendages (leaves, floral organs, etc.), grows in length by additions to its extremity, but a much greater proportion of the extremity and branches remains in a growing and expanding state for a much longer time than in the case of the root. At the close of one season, leaf-buds or seeds are formed, each containing the germ of a branch or young plant to be produced the following season. At a very early stage of the development of these buds or seeds, a commencement may be found of many of the leaves it is to bear; and before a leaf unfolds, every leaflet of which it is to consist, every lobe or tooth which is to mark its margin, may often be traced in miniature, and thenceforth till it attains its full size, the branch grows and expands in every part. In some cases however the lower part of a branch and more rarely (e. g. in some *Meliaceæ*) the lower part of a compound leaf attains its full size before the young leaves or leaflets of the extremity are yet formed.

211. The perennial stem, if exogenous (198), grows in thickness by the addition every season of a new layer or ring of wood between the outermost preceding layer and the inner surface of the bark, and by the formation of a new layer or ring of bark within the innermost preceding layer and outside the new ring of wood, thus forming a succession of concentric circles. The sap elaborated by the leaves finds its way, in a manner not as yet absolutely ascertained, into the *cambium-region*, a zone of tender thin-walled cells connecting the wood with the bark, by the division and enlargement of which new cells (190) are formed. These cells separate in layers, the inner ones constituting the new ring of wood, and the outer ones the new bark or liber. In most exogenous trees, in temperate climates, the seasons of growth correspond with the years, and the rings of wood remain sufficiently distinct to in dicate the age of the tree; but in many tropical and some evergreen trees, two or more rings of wood are formed in one year.

212. In endogenous perennial stems (199), the new wood or woody fibre is formed towards the centre of the stem, or irregularly mingled with the old. The stem consequently either only becomes more dense without increasing in thickness, or only increases by gradual distention, which is never very considerable. It affords therefore no certain criterion for judging of the age of the tree.

213. Flowers have generally all their parts formed, or indicated by protuberances or growing cells at a very early stage of the bud. These parts are then usually more regularly placed than in the fully developed flower. Parts which afterwards unite are then distinct; many are present in this rudimentary state which are never further developed, and parts which are afterwards very unequal or dissimilar are perfectly alike at this early period. On this account flowers in this very early stage are supposed by some modern botanists to be more *normal*, that is, more in conformity to a supposed type; and the study of the early formation and growth of the floral organs, called *Organogenesis*, has been considered essential for the correct appreciation of the affinities of plants. In some cases, however, it would appear that modifications of development, not to be detected in the very young bud, are yet of great importance in the distinction of large groups of plants, and that *Organogenesis*, although it may often assist in clearing up a doubtful point of affinity, cannot nevertheless be exclusively relied on in estimating the real value of peculiarities of structure.

214. The flower is considered as a *bud* (*flower-bud, alabastrum*) until the perianth expands, the *period of flowering* (*anthesis*) is that which lapses from the first expanding of the perianth, till the pistil is set or begins to enlarge, or, when it does not set, until the stamens and pistil wither or fall. After that, the enlarged ovary takes the name of *young fruit*.

215. At the close of the season of growth, at the same time as the leaf-buds or seeds are formed containing the germ of future branches or many plants form also, at or near the bud or seed, large deposits, chiefly of starch. In many cases,—such as the tubers of a potato or other rock, the scales or thickened base of a bulb, the albumen or the thick cotyledons of a seed,—this deposit appears to be a store of nutriment, which fully absorbed by the young branch or plant during its first stage of growth, before the roots are sufficiently developed to supply it from without. cases, however, such as the fleshy thickening of some stems or peduncles, the pericarps of fruits which perish long before *germination* (the th of the seed), neither the use nor the cause of these deposits has as yet been clearly explained.

§ 4. *Functions of the Organs.*

216. The functions of the Root are,—1. To fix the plant in or to the soil or other substance on which it grows. 2. To absorb nourishment from the soil, water, or air, into which the fibres have penetrated (or from other plants in the case of parasites), and to transmit it rapidly to the stem. The absorption takes places through the young growing extremities of the fibres, and through a peculiar kind of hairs or absorbing organs which are formed at or near those growing extremities. The transmission to the stem is through the tissues of the root itself. The nutriment absorbed consists chiefly of carbonic acid and nitrogen or nitrogenous compounds dissolved in water. 3. In some cases roots secrete or exude small quantities of matter in a manner and with a purpose not satisfactorily ascertained.

217. The Stem and its branches support the leaves, flowers, and fruit, transmit the crude sap, or nutriment absorbed by the roots and mixed with previously organized matter, to the leaves, and retransmit the assimilated or elaborated sap from the leaves to the growing parts of the plant, to be there used up, or to form deposits for future use (204). The transmission of the ascending crude sap appears to take place chiefly through the elongated cells associated with the vascular tissues, passing from one cell to another by a process but little understood, but known by the name of *endosmose*.

218. Leaves are functionally the most active of the organs of vegetation. In them is chiefly conducted digestion or *Assimilation*, a name given to the process which accomplishes the following results:—1. The chemical decomposition of the oxygenated matter of the sap, the absorption of carbonic acid, and the liberation of pure oxygen at the ordinary temperature of the air. 2. A counter-operation by which oxygen is absorbed from the atmosphere and carbonic acid is exhaled. 3. The transformation of the residue of the crude sap into the organized substances which enter into the composition of the plant. The exhalation of oxygen appears to take place under the influence of solar heat and light, chiefly from the under surface of the leaf, and to be in some measure regulated by the stomates; the absorption of oxygen goes on always in the dark, and in the daytime also in certain cases. The transformation of the sap is effected within the tissues of the leaf, and continues probably more or less throughout the active parts of the whole plant.

219. The Floral Organs seldom contribute to the growth of the plant on which they are produced; their functions are wholly concentrated on the formation of the seed with the germ of a future plant.

220. The Perianth (calyx and corolla) acts in the first instance in protecting the stamens and pistils during the early stages of their development. When expanded, the use of the brilliant colours which they often display, of the sweet or strong odours they emit, has not been adequately explained. Perhaps they may have great influence in attracting those insects whose concurrence has been shown in many cases to be necessary for the due transmission of the pollen from the anther to the stigma.

221. The pistil, when stimulated by the action of the pollen, forms and nourishes the young seed. The varied and complicated contrivances by which the pollen is conveyed to the stigma, whether by elastic action of the organs themselves, or with the assistance of wind, of insects, or other extraneous agents, have been the subject of numerous observations and experiments of the most distinguished naturalists, and are yet far from being fully investigated. Their details, however, as far as known, would be far too long for the present outline.

222. The fruit nourishes and protects the seed until its maturity, and then often promotes its dispersion by a great variety of contrivances or apparently collateral circumstances, e. g. by an elastic dehiscence which casts the seed off to a distance; by the development of a pappus, wings, hooked or

other appendages, which allows them to be carried off by winds, or by animals, etc., to which they may adhere; by their small specific gravity, which enables them to float down streams; by their attractions to birds, etc., who taking them for food, drop them often at great distances, etc. Appendages to the seeds themselves also often promote dispersion.

223. Hairs have various functions. The ordinary indumentum (171) of stems and leaves indeed seems to take little part in the economy of the plant besides perhaps some occasional protection against injurious atmospheric influences, but the root hairs (216) are active absorbents, the hairs on styles and other parts of flowers appear often materially to assist the transmission of pollen, and the exudations of glandular hairs (175,2) are often too copious not to exercise some influence on the phenomena of vegetation. The whole question, however, of vegetable exudations and their influence on the economy of vegetable life, is as yet but imperfectly understood.

Chap. IV. Collection, Preservation, and Determination of Plants.

224. Plants can undoubtedly be most easily and satisfactorily examined when freshly gathered. But time will rarely admit of this being done, and it is moreover desirable to compare them with other plants previously observed or collected. *Specimens* must, therefore, be selected for leisurely observation at home, and preserved for future reference. A collection of such specimens constitutes a *Herbarium*.

225. A botanical **Specimen**, to be perfect, should have *root, stem, leaves, flowers* (both open and in bud) and *fruit* (both young and mature). It is not, however, always possible to gather such complete specimens, but the collector should aim at completeness. Fragments, such as leaves without flowers, or flowers without leaves, are of little or no use.

226. If the plant is small (not exceeding 15 in.) or can be reduced to that length by folding, the specimen should consist of the whole plant, including the principal part of the root. If it be too large to preserve the whole, a good flowering branch should be selected, with the foliage as low down as can be gathered with it; and one or two of the lower stem-leaves or radical leaves, if any, should be added, so as to preserve as much as possible of the peculiar aspect of the plant.

227. The specimens should be taken from healthy uninjured plants of a medium size. Or if a specimen be gathered because it looks a little different from the majority of those around it, apparently belonging to the same species, a specimen of the more prevalent form should be taken from the same locality for comparison.

228. For bringing the specimens home, a light portfolio of pasteboard, covered with calico or leather, furnished with straps and buckles for closing, and another for slinging on the shoulder, and containing a few sheets of stout coarse paper, is better than the old-fashioned tin box (except, perhaps, for stiff prickly plants and a few others). The specimens as gathered are placed between the leaves of paper, and may be crowded together if not left long without sorting.

229. If the specimen brought home be not immediately determined when fresh, but dried for future examination, a note should be taken of the time, place, and situation in which it was gathered; of the stature, habit, and other particulars relating to any tree, shrub, or herb of which the specimen is only a portion; of the kind of root it has; of the colour of the flower; or of any other particulars which the specimen itself cannot supply, but which may be lost in the process of drying. These memoranda, whether taken down in the field or from the living specimen when brought home, should be written on a label attached to the specimen or preserved with it.

230. To dry specimens, they are laid flat between several sheets of bibulous paper, and subjected to pressure. The paper is subsequently changed at intervals, until they are dry.

231. In laying out the specimen, care should be taken to preserve the natural position of the parts as far as consistent with the [illegible]. In general, if the specimen is fresh and not very slender, it may be simply laid on the lower sheet, holding it by the stalk and drawing it slightly downwards; then, as the upper sheet is laid over, if it be slightly drawn downwards as it is pressed down, it will be found, after a few trials, the specimen will have retained a natural form with very little trouble. If the specimen has been gathered long enough to have become flaccid, it will require more care in laying the leaves flat and giving the parts their proper direction. Specimens kept in tin boxes will also often have taken unnatural bends which will require to be corrected.

232. If the specimen is very bushy, some branches must be thinned out, but always so as to show where they have been. If any part, such as the head of a thistle, the steam of an *Orobanche*, or the bulb of a Lily, be very thick, a portion of what is to be the under side of the specimen may be sliced off. Some thick specimens may be split from top to bottom before drying.

233. If the specimen be succulent or tenacious of life, such as a *Sedum* or an *Orchis*, it may be dipped in boiling water *all but the flowers*. This will kill the plant at once, and enable it to be dried rapidly, losing less of its colour or foliage than would otherwise be the case. Dipping in boiling water is also useful in the case of Heaths and other plants which are apt to shed their leaves during the process of drying.

234. Plants with very delicate corollas may be placed between single leaves of very thin unglazed tissue-paper. In shifting these plants into dry paper the tissue-paper is not to be removed, but lifted with its contents on to the dry paper.

235. The number of sheets of paper to be placed between each specimen or sheet of specimens, will depend, on the one hand, on the thickness and humidity of the specimens; on the other hand, on the quantity and quality of the paper one has at command. The more and the better the paper, the less frequently will it be necessary to change it, and the sooner the plants will dry. The paper ought to be coarse, stout, and unsized. Common blotting-paper is much too tender.

236. Care must be taken that the paper used is well dried. If it be likewise hot, all the better; but it must then be very dry; and wet plants put into hot paper will require changing very soon, to prevent their turning black, for hot damp without ventilation produces fermentation, and spoils the specimens.

237. For pressing plants, various more or less complicated and costly presses are made. None is better than a pair of boards the size of the paper, and a stone or other heavy weight upon them if at home, or a pair of strong leather straps round them if travelling. Each of these boards should be double, that is, made of two layers of thin boards, the opposite way of the grain, and joined together by a row of clenched brads round the edge, without glue. Such boards, in deal, rather less than half an inch thick (each layer about 2½ lines) will be found light and durable.

238. It is useful also to have extra boards or pasteboards the size of the paper, to separate thick plants from thin ones, wet ones from those nearly dry, etc. Open wooden frames with cross-bars, or frames of strong wire-work lattice, are still better than boards for this purpose, as accelerating the drying by promoting ventilation.

239. The more frequently the plants are shifted into dry paper the better. Excepting for very stiff or woody plants, the first pressure should be light, and the first shifting, if possible, after a few hours. Then, or at the second shifting, when the specimens will have lost their elasticity, will be the time for putting right any part of a specimen which may have taken a wrong fold or a bad direction. After this the pressure may be gradually increased, and the plants left from one to several days without shifting. The exact amount of pressure to be given will depend on the consistence of the specimens, and the amount of paper. It must only be borne in mind that too much pressure crushes the delicate parts, too little allows them to shrivel, in both cases interfering with their future examination.

240. The most convenient specimens will be made, if the drying paper is the same size as that of the herbarium in which they are to be kept. That of writing demy, rather more than 16 inches by 10½ inches, is a common and very convenient size. A small size reduces the specimens too much, a large size is both costly and inconvenient for use.

241. When the specimens are quite dry and stiff, they may be packed up in bundles with a single sheet of paper between each layer, and this paper need not be bibulous. The specimens may be placed very closely on the sheets, but not in more than one layer on each sheet, and care must be taken to protect the bundles by sufficient covering from the effects of external moisture or the attacks of insects.

242. In laying the specimens into the herbarium, no more than one species should ever be fastened on one sheet of paper, although several specimens of the same species may be laid side by side. And throughout the process of drying, packing, and laying in, great care must be taken that the labels be not separated from the specimens they belong to.

243. To examine or dissect flowers or fruits in dried specimens it is necessary to soften them. If the parts are very delicate, this is best done by gradually moistening them in cold water; in most cases, steeping them in boiling water or in steam is much quicker. Very hard fruits and seeds will require boiling to be able to dissect them easily.

244. For dissecting and examining flowers in the field, all that is necessary is a penknife and a pocket-lens of two or three glasses from 1 to 2 inches focus. At home it is more convenient to have a mounted lens or simple microscope, with a stage holding a glass plate, upon which the flowers may be laid; and a pair of dissectors, one of which should be narrow and pointed, or a mere point, like a thick needle, in a handle; the other should have a pointed blade, with a sharp edge, to make clean sections across the ovary. A compound microscope is rarely necessary, except in cryptogamic botany and vegetable anatony. For the simple microscope, lenses of ¼, ½, 1, and 1½ inches focus are sufficient.

245. To assist the student in *determining* or ascertaining the name of a plant belonging to a Flora, analytical tables should be prefixed to the Orders, Genera, and Species. These tables should be so constructed as to contain, under each bracket, or equally indented, two (rarely three or more) alternatives as nearly as possible contradictory or incompatible with each other, each alternative referring to another bracket, or having under it another pair of alternatives further indented. The student having a plant to determine, will first take the general table of Natural Orders, and examining his plant at each step to see which alternative agrees with it, will be led on to the Order to which it belongs; he will then compare it with the detailed character of the Order given in the text. If it agrees, he will follow the same course with the table of the genera of that Order, and again with the table of species of the genus. But in each case, if he finds that his plant does not agree with the detailed description of the genus or species to which he has thus been referred, he must revert to the beginning and carefully go through every step of the investigation before he can be satisfied. A fresh examination of his specimen, or of others of the same plant, a critical consideration of the meaning of every expression in the characters given, may lead him to detect some minute point overlooked or mistaken, and put him into the right way. Species vary within limits which it is often very difficult to express in words, and it proves often impossible, in framing these analytical tables, so to divide the genera and species, that those which come under one alternative should absolutely exclude the others. In such doubtful cases both alternatives must be tried before the student can come to the conclusion that his plant is not contained in the Flora, or that it is erroneously described.

246. In those Floras where analytical tables are not given, the student is usually guided to the most important or prominent characters of each genus or species, either by a general summary prefixed to the genera of an Order or to the species of the genus, for all such genera or species; or by a special summary immediately preceding the detailed description of each genus or species. In the latter case this summary is called a *diagnosis*. Or sometimes the important characters are only indicated by italicizing them in the detailed description.

247. It may also happen that the specimen gathered may present some occasional or accidental anomalies peculiar to that single one, or to a very few individuals, which may prevent the species from being at once recognized by its technical characters. It may be useful here to point out a few of those anomalies which the botainst may be most likely to meet with. For this purpose we may divide them into two classes, viz.:

(1.) *Aberrations from the ordinary type or appearance of a species for which some general cause may be assigned.*

A bright, light, and open situation, particularly at considerable elevations above the sea, or at high latitudes, without too much wet or drought, tends to increase the size and heighten the colour of flowers, in proportion to the stature and foliage of the plant.

Shade, on the contrary, especially if accompanied by richness of soil and sufficient moisture, tends to increase the foliage and draw up the stem, but to diminish the number, size, and colour of the flowers.

A hot climate and dry situation tend to increase the hairs, prickles, and other productions of the epidermis, to shorten and stiffen the branches, rendering thorny plants yet more spinous. Moisture in a rich soil has a contrary effect.

The neighbourhood of the sea, or a saline soil or atmosphere, imparts a thicker and more succulent consistence to the foliage and almost every part of the plant, and appears not unfrequently to enable plants usually annual to live through the winter. Flowers in a maritime variety are often much fewer, but not smaller.

The luxuriance of plants growing in a rich soil, and the dwarf stunted character of those crowded in poor soils, are too well known to need particularizing. It is also an everyday observation how gradually the specimens of a species become dwarf and stunted as we advance into the cold damp regions of the summits of high mountain ranges, or into high northern latitudes; and yet it is frequently from the want of attention to these circumstances that numbers of false species have been added to our Enumerations and Floras. Luxuriance entails not only increase of size to the whole plant, or of particular parts, but increase of number in branches, in leaves, or leaflets of a compound leaf; or it may diminish the hairiness of the plant, induce thorns to grow out into branches, etc.

Capsules which, while growing, lie close upon the ground, will often become larger, more succulent, and less readily dehiscent, than those which are not so exposed to the moisture of the soil.

Herbs eaten down by sheep or cattle, or crushed underfoot, or otherwise checked in their growth, or trees or shrubs cut down to the ground, if then exposed to favourable circumstances of soil and climate, will send up luxuriant side shoots, often so different in the form of their leaves, in their ramification and inflorescence, as to be scarcely recognizable for the same species.

Annuals which have germinated in spring and flowered without check, will often be very different in aspect from individuals of the same species, which, having germinated later, are stopped by summer droughts or the approach of winter, and only flower the following season upon a second growth. The latter have often been mistaken for perennials.

Hybrids, or crosses between two distinct species, come under the same category of anomalous specimens from a known cause. Frequent as they are in gardens, where they are artificially produced, they are probably rare in nature, although on this subject there is much diversity of opinion, some believing them to be very frequent, others almost denying their existence. Absolute proof of the origin of a plant found wild, is of ourse impossible; but it is pretty generally agreed that the following particulars must always co-exist in a *wild hybrid*. It partakes of the characters of its two parents; it is to be found isolated, or almost isolated, in places where the two parents are abundant; if there are two or three, they will generally be dissimilar from each other, one partaking more of one parent, another of the other; it seldom ripens good seed; it will never be found where one of the parents grows alone.

Where two supposed species grow together, intermixed with numerous intermediates bearing good seed, and passing more or less gradually from the one to the other, it may generally be concluded that the whole are mere varieties of one species. The beginner, however, must be very cautious not to